DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 217 620 EC 142 705

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TITLE Valuing the Diversity of Minority Handicapped Students. Module II.
INSTITUTION National Alliance of Black School Educators, Washington, DC. Training Assistance Center.
SPONS AGENCY Special Education Programs (ED/OSERS), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE 81
GRANT G007901223
NOTE 138p.; Parts of the document are marginal and may not reproduce well. For related documents, see EC 142 704-708.

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC06 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Attitude Change; Black Students; *Cultural Differences; Curriculum; *Disabilities; Elementary Secondary Education; Lesson Plans; *Minority Groups; Preservice Teacher Education; *Student Characteristics; *Teacher Attitudes; *Teaching Methods

ABSTRACT

The second of five modules is designed to acquaint preservice teachers with the issue and plight of culturally diverse and handicapped students in the public education system. An initial section offers guidelines for a presession and describes organizational structure of the module. Three sessions, to be presented in 50 minute classes, cover attitudes that affect minority handicapped students academically and socially, characteristics of specific handicapping conditions, and teaching/learning strategies to enhance students academically and socially. Among the topics addressed are the following: effects of teacher attitudes; manifestations of mental retardation, learning disabilities, behavior disorders, physical disabilities, speech and language disorders, visual impairments, and hearing impairments; and development of sensitivity to handicapped and culturally diverse students. Sections for each class include an instructional plan, handouts/transparencies list, lecture material, references, and resources. Pre- and postassessment tests, a glossary, handouts, and transparency masters are also given. (SB)

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MODULE II

VALUING THE DIVERSITY OF MINORITY HANDICAPPED STUDENTS

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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1430 K Street, N.W.
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VALUING THE DIVERSITY OF
MINORITY HANDICAPPED STUDENTS

This work was developed pursuant to Grant No. (G) 007901223 from the Office of Special Education, U. S. Department of Education. The content, however, does not necessarily reflect the position or policy of OSE/DE and no official endorsement by the Department of Education should be inferred.

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P.L. 94-142 And The Minority Child

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FOREWORD

With the passage of Public Law 94-142 came the challenge to the public school system to educate handicapped children in regular classrooms, the least restrictive environment in many instances. For many teachers, the presence of handicapped children in their classes presents problems which the teachers are ill-prepared to resolve.

Martin (1974) identifies attitudes, fears, anxieties, and possible overt rejection as barriers to the placement of handicapped children in regular classrooms. Moreover, the placement of Black and other minority group handicapped children in regular classrooms presents problems stemming from the race, culture, and socioeconomic level of the students. The minority handicapped child is confronted by the teacher's lack of sensitivity to and positive valuing of cultural differences as well as his/her inability to use teaching/learning strategies and develop and/or rewrite curricula in response to the needs of minority students. In addition, the term "minority" has the connotation of being less than other groups with respect to power, status, and treatment (Chinn, 1979).

To assist teacher educators to overcome these problems and to implement P. L. 94-142, NABSE/TAC has developed this series of modules. It is anticipated that these modules will be infused in teacher education programs at historically Black institutions and, thereby, serve as vehicles to encourage and inspire pre-service teachers to use their minority perspectives and expertise for the benefit of special-needs minority students in relation to P.L. 94-142.

There are five instructional modules in this series. This instructional module and others in the series address the problems faced by Black handicapped and other minority handicapped students. The spirit and letter of P.L. 94-142 are explored relative to their problems. The modules are as follows:

- *P.L. 94-142 and the Minority Child*
- *Minority Handicapped Students: Assessment Issues and Practices*
- *The Development and Delivery of Instructional Services: A Commitment to the Minority Handicapped Child*
- *Structuring the Learning Climate for Minority Handicapped Students*
- *Valuing the Diversity of Minority Handicapped Students*

The module P.L. 94-142 and the Minority Child is to be used first. Thereafter, the teacher educator may choose to use any of the remaining modules as appropriate to the needs of his/her student population.

All children have a right to equality of education. The National Alliance of Black School Educators believes that through efforts such as those of the Training Assistance Center equality of educational opportunity for all Black and other minority students can be attained.

Chinn, P. C., The exceptional minority child: issues and some answers. Exceptional Children, 1979, 45, 532-536.

Martin, E. W., Some thoughts on mainstreaming. Exceptional Children and Youth, November, 1974, 150-153.

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PRESESSION

RATIONALE

Prospective teachers must be helped to develop great sensitivity to the dynamics of human interaction and development. They must understand that the optimum environment for the growth of children depends as much upon the attitudes and values of education personnel as upon the facilities and other resources of the educational setting.

Evidence suggests that children who are labeled as handicapped and children who are disadvantaged by race, ethnicity, and/or socioeconomic status share many of the same problems in schools. Their attributes and behaviors are negatively perceived. Too seldom are these attributes and behaviors seen as positive coping mechanisms which arise from the unique experience of the child in interacting with his/her environments. Exceptionality, difference, deficit, and other characteristics are culturally defined which serve to separate those who meet the social and cultural norms for behavior and worth from those who do not. One is only exceptional hen one is perceived as exceptional by society. Because of such perceptions, many poort, handicapped, and minority children have been selectively removed from schools or, at least, from school rooms populated by the normative group known as the majority.

Those persons originally responsible for the selective removal of children are now being required to return them to regular

classroom settings and to provide them with equal access to educational opportunities. Legal requirements, however, will not automatically change the behaviors and perceptions of education personnel. They must, somehow, be brought to undergo the painful change process which can make them open to cultural diversity, able to value differences, able to empathize with the developmentally handicapped, and willing and able to consciously nurture and foster the positive self-concept of children as a prerequisite for the children's learning.

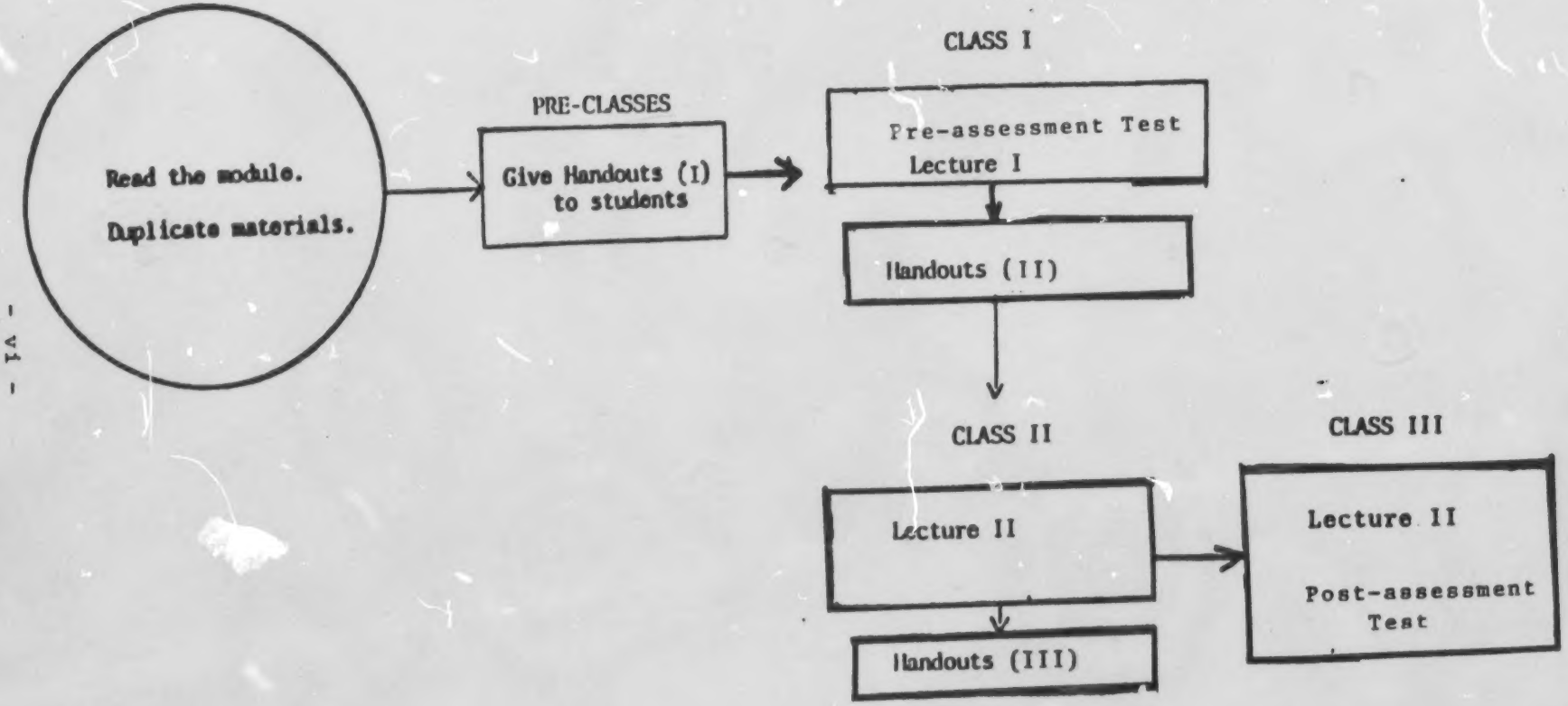
While the legislation Public Law 94-142 put into place a structure and process for ensuring the rights of the handicapped, it could not legislate the change in perceptions, attitudes, and feelings necessary to make it optimally successful in accomplishing its purposes. This module provides the teacher educator and preservice teacher with a vehicle through which he or she may identify and explore his or her understanding, attitudes and feelings toward those who are minority and handicapped.

G O A L

The goal of the module is to provide the following information about minority handicapped students:

- attitudes that affect them academically and socially;
- characteristics of specific handicapping conditions, and ;
- teaching/learning strategies to enhance them academically and socially.

INSTRUCTIONAL FLOWCHART



ORGANIZATIONAL PLAN

This module is designed to acquaint preservice teachers with the issue and plight of culturally diverse and handicapped students in the public education system. Teachers are shown how their attituded affect the education of children who are different and are given strategies for working effectively with culturally diverse and handicapped children.

This module is designed to be presented in three (3) 50-minute classes. Presession activities to familiarize the teacher educator with the module have been included.

PRESESSION

1. Read the entire module including handouts.
2. Obtain and preview the suggested filmstrip.
3. Obtain and duplicate handouts.
4. Make transparencies.
5. Read additional materials on the education of the handicapped.

CLASS I

Materials

Equipment

Instructional Plans

Handouts

- HO I-1 The Exceptional Minority Child: Issues and Some Answers
- HO I-2 Many Teachers Wonder...Will the Special-needs Child Ever Really Belong?

Pre-assessment Test

Lecture I

CLASS II

Materials

Equipment

Instructional Plans

Handouts

Overhead Projector

- HO II-1 Teaching the Behavior Disordered Child
- HO II-2 Teaching Reading to Mainstreamed Sensory Impaired Children
- HO II-3 The Language Delayed Child in the Mainstreamed Primary Classroom

Transparencies

- TP-1 Misconceptions of the Mentally Retarded
- TP-2 Misconceptions of the Learning Disabled
- TP-3 Misconceptions of the Behavior Disordered
- TP-4 Misconceptions of the Physically Disordered
- TP-5 Misconceptions of the Speech and Language Disordered
- TP-6 Misconceptions of the Visually Impaired
- TP-7 Misconceptions of the Hearing Impaired

Lecture II

CLASS III

Materials

Equipment

Instructional Plans

Handouts

- HO III-1 The Four M Curriculum: A Way To Shape the Future

Lecture III

Post-assessment Test

COPYRIGHT INFORMATION

Identified below is copyright information on all articles that are recommended for use in this module. Some articles require a fee and others do not. The articles that require no fee are included in the module. NABSE/TAC offers this information to facilitate your securing the articles.

Handout I-1

Chinn, P. The exceptional minority child: Issues and some answers. Exceptional Children, 1979, 45.

Publisher:

Council for Exceptional Children
1920 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091

Available in module.

Handout I-2

Johnson, D. & Johnson, R. Many teachers wonder...will the special needs child ever really belong? Instructor, 1978, 87, 152-54.

Publisher:

Instructor Publications, Inc.
7 Bank Street,
Danville, NY 14437

Available in module.

Handout II-1

Neel, R. Teaching the behavior disordered child. Early Years, 1979, 9, 22-30.

Available in module.

Publisher:

Allen Raymond, Inc.
P. O. Box 1266
Darien, CT 06820

Handout II-2

Degler, L. & Risko, V. Teaching reading to mainstreamed sensory impaired children. Reading Teacher, 1979, 32, 921-5.

Publisher:

IRA Inc.
800 Barksdale Road
Newark, DE 19711
Attn: Prudence Blades

Available in module.

Handout II-3

Scofield, S. The language-delayed child in the mainstreamed primary classroom. Language Arts, 1978, 55, 719-723.

Publisher:

National Council of Teachers of English
Elementary Section
1111 Kenyon Road
Urbana, IL 61801

Available in module.

Handout III-1

Sizemore, B. The four m curriculum: A way to shape the future. Journal of Negro Education, 1979, 48, 341-56.

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Washington, DC 20001

Available in module.

CLASS I

D I V E R S I T Y

INSTRUCTIONAL PLAN - CLASS I

Behavioral Objective	Enabling Activity		Materials
	Teacher Educator	Student	
1. The student will be able to discuss the theories of cultural deficit and difference relative to the education of culturally diverse children.	• Lecture I	• Lecture II	1. Lecture I: Diversity in Perspective • Handout I-1: The Exceptional Minority Child: Issues and Some Answers
2. The student will be able to tell how teacher attitudes affect the education of culturally diverse students.	• Lecture I	• Lecture II	2. Lecture I:
3. The student will be able to discuss ways in which to facilitate the mainstreaming of special needs students.			3. Handout I-2: Many Teachers Wonder...Will the Special Needs Child Ever Really Belong?

HANDOUTS, TRANSPARENCIES (APPENDIX)

CLASS I

Handouts

HO I-1	The Exceptional Minority Child: Issues and Some Answers
HO I-2	Many Teachers Wonder...Will The Special-Needs Child Ever Really Belong?

NAME: _____ DATE: _____

PROFESSOR: _____

Valuing the Diversity of Minority Handicapped Students

PRE-ASSESSMENT

DIRECTIONS: For each numbered item there is a lettered set of alternative answers or completions. Select the BEST ONE for each item. Circle your response.

1) Which ONE of the following is NOT a value cluster that affects the socialization and learning style of children?

a) communication style
b) human relations style
c) eating-sleeping style
d) incentive-motivation style

2) Which ONE of the following is NOT a strategy for developing cultural sensitivity?

a) holding discussions that encourage students to air biases

b) modifying curriculum to reflect minority student's value clusters and skill needs

c) exhibiting positive behaviors in interacting with minority handicapped students

d) isolating handicapped students that do not fit in with nonhandicapped students

3) The physcially disabled are individuals who have

a) limited physical movement
b) cognitive problems as well as physical problems
c) functional problems with physical ability and medical conditions which affect strength and stamina

d) problems with trunk control and mobility

DIRECTIONS: Each numbered item is preceded by T (true) and F (false). Circle T or F to indicate whether the statement is true (T) or false (F).

T F 4. The theory of cultural deficit incorporates as one element the idea that children who come to school lacking middle-class constructs and behavior are 'ready' for school.

T F 5. The theory of cultural difference incorporates as one element the idea that children who come to school lacking middle-class constructs and behaviors are 'ready' for school.

T F 6. Curriculum for physically disabled students typically requires substantial adaptations.

T F 7. Visual aids that supplement instruction are important for hearing impaired students.

T F 8. Visually impaired students require a limited amount of special education material.

T F 9. Language arts lessons can be structured to provide stimulation activities for speech and language disordered students.

T F 10. When possible, teachers should ignore the provocative behavior exhibited by students with behavior problems.

T F 11. Selection of a task the student can learn and determination of a method for teaching the task are not important factors to consider when working with learning disabled students.

DIRECTIONS: For each numbered item, supply the correct response.

12. Special aids that visually impaired students may require are:

_____, _____, and _____.

13. Instructional aids such as _____, _____, and _____ may be used by physically disabled students in oral and written communication tasks.

DIRECTIONS: Each lettered set of headings is followed by a numbered set of items. For each item select the ONE MOST CLOSELY RELATED heading and place the letter of the heading on the line preceding the item.

14.

a) Behavior disorders	e) Blindness
b) Learning disability	f) Mental retardation
c) Multiple handicap	g) Impaired hearing
d) Deafness	h) Visual impairment

_____ A disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or using language, spoken or written, which may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell or do mathematical calculations.

_____ Limited visual acuity which despite corrective lenses limits learning through conventional methods.

_____ Those who chronically and markedly respond to their environment in socially unacceptable and/or personally unsatisfying ways but who can be taught more socially acceptable and personally gratifying behavior.

_____ Absence of hearing in both ears for all practical purposes.

_____ Significantly subaverage general intellectual functioning existing concurrently with deficits in adaptive behavior and manifested during the developmental period.

ESSAY Be brief.

15. Discuss the impact of teacher attitudes on the education of culturally diverse handicapped students.

16. Discuss ways to facilitate the mainstreaming of special needs students.

17. Discuss the impact of cultural diversity on curriculum.

LECTURE I

DIVERSITY IN PERSPECTIVE

Every individual is in certain respects;

- like all other individuals;
- like some other individuals and;
- like no other individuals.

Human diversity resides in the latter two conditions, those qualities which mark the individual as being somewhat different or as being unique. There are common features in the biological heritage of all individuals. Some features are unique to the species; an erect posture, an ability to grasp, three-dimensional vision, and a nervous system which permits elaborate speech and learning are characteristics which, taken together, distinguish homo sapiens from other species. In addition, the individual is born and reared in a social group since human beings can not afford to abandon group life. Every human being needs the love of others and the survival of the species requires the support of the group. Within the group the individual learns from experience and from other members of the group, that is, the accumulated wisdom of the group which is called "culture". Culture provides ready made solutions to human problems. Culture serves the purpose for human beings that instinct serves for lower orders of animals.

Additionally, some similiarities in human development and its product, human personality, stem from the daily satisfactions and frustrations of life. These frustrations may be caused, for example, by the weather, by physiological conditions within the body, by the restrictions imposed by authority, or by sanctions

imposed by the society. Such experiences of satisfaction and frustration are universal for all individuals everywhere in spite of differing physical and sociocultural contexts. Some experiences which are shared by members of a sociocultural group may produce enough recognizable similarities to be identified as national characteristics or to produce identifiable group traits which go beyond membership in a particular society. Thus, farmers, clergy, intellectuals, students, and other persons grouped by vocation, occupation or ability show many similarities the world over.

Finally, there are ways in which every individual is unique. An individual's modes of perceiving, feeling, and behaving form characteristic patterns which are the product of the unique experience of the individual as he/she interacts with inherited biological material, with the physical and sociocultural context, and with the individual perceptions of the world which are present at any given moment.

> Thus, there is uniqueness in each inheritance and uniqueness in each environment but, more particularly, uniqueness in the number, kinds, and temporal order of critically determining situations encountered in the course of life. (Kluckhohn & Murray, p. 55)

The enormous diversities of the human family flow from the unique experiences of individuals and groups, which accompany their interactions with their various environments. Unhappily, the human characteristics which result from these interactions are too often unfavorably evaluated by the society within which the individuals reside. Deviation from the accepted norm and

these norms differ from one sociocultural group to another, may be regarded with fear, contempt, dislike, impatience, or condescension. A healthier point of view was expressed by the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education in November, 1972, namely, that there is no one model American. Diversity must be seen as a positive force in a society which professes commitment to and respect for the intrinsic worth of every individual.

The major provisions of Public Law 94-142-namely, free appropriate education, an individualized education program, least restrictive environment, nondiscriminatory testing, and due process-promote individuality and cultural diversity. The implementation of these provisions, however, rests primarily with the regular classroom teacher and other education personnel who will work with students possessing handicapping conditions. Many of these students who will be integrated into regular classrooms will be Black or some other minority whose cultural background, previous tenure in special classes, and/handicapping conditions will render them different from middle-class students, the group on which the public school is structured. In P. L. 94-142, the term "handicapped children" means those children evaluated as being:

- deaf
- deaf-blind
- orthopedically impaired
- seriously emotionally disturbed
- specific learning disability
- speech impaired
- other health impaired
- visually handicapped
- mentally retarded
- multi-handicapped

Children with these impairments need special education and special services which is to be provided in the least restrictive environment.

What will the middle-class oriented teacher need to know about cultural diversity and handicapping conditions to provide appropriate and equitable educational opportunities to minority students?

Difference or Deficit

The diversity of Black and other minority students can be viewed in two different ways. If one subscribes to the theory of cultural deficits, he/she will view the child who comes to school and does not function as a middle-class child is expected to function as unready because of an inadequate home environment. Those persons who subscribe to the theory of cultural difference will view the child who comes to school and does not function as a middle-class child is expected to function, as different from the middle-class child as a result of cultural diversity. This child who is different is nevertheless ready for school and capable of learning.

Button (1977) takes the position that it is the school's responsibility to be ready to teach the culturally different child. Likewise, it is the school's responsibility to be ready to teach handicapped Black and other minority handicapped students in regular classrooms. To assist educators and auxiliary personnel in carrying out their responsibilities, Public Law 94-142 has mandated procedures and policies. In addition, the underlying

premise of public education must be to recognize and accept individual differences resulting from ethnicity, race, and handicap and to provide an environment and programs that enhance diversity. The effective classroom teacher of Black and minority handicapped students is one who views the culturally different student and the handicapped student as a human being whose cultural context and/handicap has made him/her different from the non-handicapped white middle-class in learning style, but not any less capable and valued.

Teacher Attitudes

The school commonly anticipates from all students white and middle-class cognitive styles, behavior patterns, values, and communication modes. Black, handicapped, and minority handicapped students, however, bring into the classroom skills, attitudes, and a set of experiences that differ from those of the white middle class. These differences adversely affect teachers with a middle-class orientation. With regard to differences in culture, socioeconomic status and race, teachers engage in practices upon and display attitudes toward students which imply the teachers' unfavorable evaluation of the students or their behavior which affect the students' academic performance, and which perpetuate a caste system and racism (Jacobson & Rosenthal, 1968; Lanier, 1975; Ogbu, 1978; Mercer, 1974; Shipman, 1976; Silberberg & Silberber, 1974; Sullivan, 1972).

Many Black and minority handicapped children have been the victims of biased assessment, segregation, and benign neglect

because their race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status and handicap influenced the diagnosis of their learning capacity and subsequent educational placement. Prior to P. L. 94-142 few if any safeguards had been used to protect these children from receiving an inappropriate education. In addition, teacher education institutions in many instances have failed to change the attitudes of preservice teachers toward Black children. Anne Stein (1971) states the following:

> Three centuries of racism have already prepared the mind and insulated the heart of the teacher candidate. When his classroom has only Black children in it, the teacher is ready to believe without question that these poor children are so deprived and their home community so depraved, they will not be able to learn very much.

Socioeconomic status is a factor in the quality of education that a child receives. According to the 1968 report of the President's Committee on Mental Retardation, a child in a low income family, rural or urban, was fifteen times more likely to be diagnosed as retarded than pupils whose families had higher incomes (President's Committee on Mental Retardation , 1968).

Evidence of racism is documented in a 1972 study by Sullivan in which race was shown as a significant impediment to a Black student's receiving an education that did not undermine his chances of succeeding in the public school system. The study revealed a marked difference between teacher interaction with Black students and with white students when both had been randomly labeled gifted and non-gifted. Black students were "given less attention, ignored more, praised less, and criticized more."

The Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) study showed the effects of teacher expectations on student achievement. In this study, teachers were told that certain children had great potential for intellectual growth. The children, however, had been randomly identified and thus, had no more potential than any randomly selected group of children. Eight months later, the children identified as having potential for intellectual growth had made substantial gains on their IQ scores, while the other children not identified as having potential had not. Apparently, teacher expectations served as a self-fulfilling prophecy.

The attitudes of teachers also influence negative categorization and placement of Black and other minority group students. Lanier (1975) found that both Black and white teachers referred Black students to Educable Mentally Retarded (EMR) classes more frequently than they referred white students even though both groups of students manifested similar characteristics.

The effect of teacher attitudes and values is indicated in studies by Mercer (1973) and Silberberg and Silberberg (1974). Mercer reported a disproportionate number of Black students classified as educable mentally retarded. Silberberg and Silberberg noted the teacher's value judgment as the variable that affected the more pessimistic labeling of and prognosis for Black children who were experiencing the same learning problems as white children who were more positively labeled. Blacks were labeled mentally retarded; whites were labeled learning disabled.

A study by Shipman (1976) on low-income children who entered

school with the same average self-esteem as middle-income children revealed that after three years the self-esteem of the low-income children had dropped below that of the middle-income children. These findings have implications for teacher expectations of low-income children.

Negative labels- such as EMR, disadvantaged, and slow-test scores, cultural group, race, and socioeconomic level influence teacher expectations and the climate in which children learn. These factors have a debilitating effect on Black students because students usually live up to their teachers' expectations. This is disconcerting because "Many teachers regard Blacks as intellectually inferior and do not expect them to do well (Ogbu, 1978)." Many educators view handicapped students as less capable of learning than non-handicapped students and expect less from them.

What the teacher feels and thinks about handicapped Black and other minority handicapped children does make a difference in their development of self-esteem and in their cognitive and social growth. According to Maslow's theory of motivation, cognitive and aesthetic growth do not occur until the need for self-esteem and love has been met. Thus, educators ought to be sensitive to cultural differences and knowledgeable of handicapping conditions that make these diverse children different from white non-handicapped children while these children are the same as white non-handicapped children with regard to a need to feel good about themselves, to be loved, and to be thought of as capable of succeeding.

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RESOURCES - CLASS I

TEACHER

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STUDENT

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CLASS II

HANDICAPPING CONDITIONS

INSTRUCTIONAL PLAN - CLASS II

Behavioral Objective	Enabling Activitiy		Materials
	Teacher Educator	Student	
1) State a definition for the following handicapping conditions, visual impairment, hearing impairment, speech and language disorder, mental retardation, specific learning disability, orthopedic and other health impairments, and behavior disorders.	• Lecture II	Groups of students (3-4) will select a handicapping condition and prepare a short report which includes the definition and specific characteristics of the condition. Read Handout II.	1) a. Lecture II: Diversity in Perspective. b. Handout II-1: Handicapping Conditions.
2) Discuss different instructional strategies suggested for use with mentally retarded, learning disabled, and behavior disordered students.	• Lecture II		2) a. Lecture II b. Handout II-2: Teaching the Behavior Disordered Child.
3) Discuss different instructional strategies suggested for use with sensory impaired and speech and language disordered students.	• Lecture II		3) a. Lecture II b. Handout II-3: Teaching Reading to Mainstreamed Sensory Impaired Children. c. Handout II-4: The Language Delayed Child in the Mainstreamed Primary Classroom.
4) List various aids and appliances that may be used by physically disabled and visually impaired students.	• Lecture II	Research (out of class) and prepare a short written report on the aids and appliances used with visually impaired and physically disabled.	4) a. Lecture II

Optional Instructional Plan - Class II

Behavioral Objective	Enabling Activity		Materials
	Teacher Educator	Student	
1)	• Lecture II		
2 & 3)	Visit a school with mainstreamed students. Talk with the teacher about instructional strategies that he/she uses with handicapped students.		
4)	• Lecture II		

HANDOUTS, TRANSPARENCIES (APPENDIX)

CLASS II

Handouts

HO II-1:	Teaching the Behavior Disordered Child
HO II-2:	Teaching Reading to Mainstreamed Sensory Impaired Children
HO II-3:	The Language-Delayed Child in the Mainstreamed Primary Classroom

Transparencies

TP-1:	Misconceptions of the Mentally Retarded
TP-2:	Misconceptions of the Learning Disabled
TP-3:	Misconceptions of the Behavior Disordered
TP-4:	Misconceptions of the Physically Disabled
TP-5:	Misconceptions of the Speech and Language Disordered
TP-6:	Misconceptions of the Visually Impaired
TP-7:	Misconceptions of the Hearing Impaired

LECTURE II

MANIFESTATIONS OF HANDICAPPING CONDITIONS

The public education system is required by Public Law 94-142 to provide appropriate education for all handicapped students. This law identifies eleven handicapping conditions that may necessitate the provision of special education and related services to eligible students. The children that receive special education and related services are evaluated as being:

- mentally retarded
- hard of hearing
- deaf
- speech impaired
- visually handicapped
- seriously emotionally disturbed
- orthopedically impaired
- other health impaired
- deaf-blind
- multi-handicapped
- specifically learning disabled

At one time or another regular educators can expect to have in their classrooms one or more children with any of these eleven handicapping conditions.

The placement of handicapped students with nonhandicapped students in the regular classroom is called 'mainstreaming' or 'integration'. The term integration often has dual significance for some handicapped students who receive instruction in the regular classroom. That is, many of the integrated mainstreamed students will be Black and also handicapped. Thus, they are not only identifiable because of their racial/ethnic/cultural differences but also because of an additional difference-their handicap. If

physical differences are defined or regarded as a handicap by society, the persons who are physically different may develop attitudes about themselves that are not healthy or normal. Moreover, if a child assumes during the formative years that people perceive him/her negatively because of a particular physical attribute and if those perceptions cause the development of negative attitudes toward the self, he/she will be handicapped in personal adjustment. Consequently, it is very important for minority handicapped students to be educated in a climate that accepts and understands their disability and also acknowledges, accepts, and utilizes the cultural differences they bring with them.

The management of handicapped students in regular classes requires extra effort for teachers and sometimes students. However, the presence of handicapped students can be a beneficial experience for all concerned. Mainstreamed classrooms can provide an environment where it is possible to educate children about differences of all kinds, racial, ethnic, mental, and physical. In addition, teachers will have concrete reasons for adapting curriculum and trying new and different instructional and learning strategies. Therefore, diversity in the class can lead children to acknowledge and value differences among people and learn to successfully interact with a broader range of people (Sapon-Shevin, 1979). At the same time, the presence of handicapped and culturally diverse students in the classroom can serve as an impetus for the professional growth of the regular teacher.

How do regular educators successfully foster a positive environment for everyone regardless of the nature or magnitude of differences? General knowledge of handicapping conditions, expertise in techniques for instructional management of diverse populations, and an awareness of cultural/racial differences are essential. Although specific strategies will be suggested for the management of particular conditions, commonalties serve to remind us that students are in many ways more alike than different. Therefore, there are teaching strategies that can promote maximum learning across a broad spectrum of students. Whereas teachers must equip themselves with such strategies, they must realize that no single approach provides guaranteed success with every student. Strategies that have been identified for the instruction of handicapped students can be building blocks to assist in the individualization of instruction. Regular and special education students can benefit from the procedures that follow:

- starting instruction a little below the child's independent level;
- using direct experiences;
- helping the student set the pace of learning;
- employing principles of reinforcement systematically;
- using peer instruction;
- moving from the familiar to the unfamiliar;
- modeling behavior;
- limiting extraneous stimuli;
- being consistent; and
- observing the student closely (Reynolds & Birch, p. 463-77).

These procedures and the knowledge of specific characteristics and instructional strategies, can help to equip the regular teacher with

skills to manage a mildly handicapped child in the regular class (Meyen, 1978).

Depending on the severity of the handicapping condition of the student in the regular class, the teacher may be 1) receiving consultation on methods and materials from support personnel, 2) implementing a program designed by or in conjunction with a specialist, 3) or maintaining continutiy of instruction for students who are regularly seen out-of-class by resource or itinerant personnel. Such a team approach encourages respect for the professional competence of all members and goes a long way in providing a positive mainstreaming experience for students and teachers. Whatever the model of support used in particular schools, coordination and cooperation between regular and special educators are essential.

Apart from the home, the teaching-learning situation managed by the teacher has the most profound developmental impact on the child and should be the central focus of the collaborative effort of the team (Moran, 1978).

P. L. 94-142 mandates an appropriate least restrictive placement for all handicapped students which include the mild and severely profoundly impaired. Many students with handicapping conditions such as learning disability, emotional disturbances, visual, hearing, speech and language impairments, and orthopedic and other health impairments are being integrated into the regular class as their least restrictive alternative. On the other hand, many multi-handicapped or severely/profoundly handicapped students are being served in self-contained classes in public schools as opposed to institutions. In some instances, schools systems are

also providing mainstreaming activities for these students by integrating them into social activities or offering peer-tutoring programs. Regardless of a students degree of difference, public schools are beginning to respond to the challenge of an appropriate education for all students (Meyen, 1978).

Students eligible for integration into the regular class setting will most likely demonstrate learning problems relative to one of the following conditions:

- mental retardation
- specific learning disability
- behavior disorder
- speech and language disorder
- orthopedically and other health impairment
- visually impairment
- hearing impairment

Mental Retardation

By most authorities mental retardation is defined as significantly subaverage general intellectual functioning accompanied by deficient adaptive behavior and manifested during the developmental period. Simply stated, mental retardation is slow cognitive development. The rate of mental development for a retarded child is generally one half to three fourths of normal child's rate of growth in a typical year. This slow rate of development means that readiness for academic skills usually has not occurred when the child enters school at 6 years of age.

Mental retardation is usually classified by degrees into four categories. (See Table I.)

AAMD LEVELS OF MENTAL RETARDATION

Degree of Mental Retardation	Obtained Stanford-Binet (s.d. - 16)	Intelligence Quotient Wechsler Scales (s.d. - 15)	Common Educational Terms
Mild	67-52	69-55	Educable
Moderate	51-36	54-40	Trainable
Severe	35-20	39-25(extrapolated)	Trainable
Profound	19 and below	24 and below (extrapolated)	Severe/ Profound

Adapted from: *Manual on Terminology and Classification in Mental Retardation (rev. ed.), by H. J. Grossman, et al., American Association on Mental Deficiency, Washington, DC., 1973, p. 18.*

As the chart indicates, the classifications of retardation appear to merge into each other instead of representing sharp distinctions between the beginning of one level and the end of another.

Although the classifications were designed to indicate the individual's potential for acquiring skills, it must be noted that mental retardation is not necessarily permanent. Instruction has been found not only to change the degree of retardation so that an individual develops skills at a higher level than initially expected but also to elevate the individual to a level where the label of retardation may no longer be justified.

The following are some misconceptions about mentally retarded students. (Put on transparency TP-1)

MYTH	FACT
1. Once diagnosed as mentally retarded, a person remains within this classification for the rest of his/her life.	The level of mental functioning does not necessarily remain stable, particularly for those in the mild classification.
2. If a person achieves a low score on an IQ test, this means that his/her adaptive skills are also sure to be subnormal.	It is possible for a person to have a tested subnormal IQ and still have adequate adaptive skills. Much depends on the individual's training, motivation, experience, social environment and other factors.
3. Children with Down's Syndrome are always happy, compliant, and pleasant to have around.	In general, although they often are tractable and good-natured, the idea that they are significantly more so than other children is exaggerated.
4. The retarded go through different learning stages than normal individuals	Many studies indicate that the learning characteristics of the retarded, particularly the mildly retarded, do not differ from those of normal people. Retarded people go through the same stages but at a slower rate.
5. Children classified as moderately retarded (often referred to in the past as "trainable") require a radically different curriculum than do children classified as mildly retarded (often referred to in the past as "educable").	While, in general, academics is stressed more in classes for the mildly retarded relative to the moderately retarded, this generalization does not always hold true for individual children. Each child has a unique set of characteristics and needs.
6. It is valuable for the teacher to know whether or not the child's retardation is due to brain damage.	While the diagnosis of brain injury may be important for the medical professional, educators gain no useful information from such information. (Hallahan & Kaufman, 1978)

Those who show signs of mild retardation are described as Educable Mentally Retarded (EMR). This is the most prevalent category of retardation and is most often concentrated in the lowest

socioeconomic group. Evidence now indicates that environments in which certain harmful conditions prevail-such as poverty, malnutrition, a lack of adequate medical care, unhealthy living conditions and a lack of stimulation in the early developmental years often hamper a child's ability to learn and cope with academic and societal demands (Meyen, 1978). The EMR classification has been recognized as the placement that contains a disproportionate number of ethnic/racial minority students, many of whom are referred from regular classes because they were perceived as management and/or instructional problems that could not be handled in that class setting. Many of these students were labeled EMR and placed in separate classes for the mentally retarded based on discriminatory assessment practices rather than actual retardation. These mislabeled and other EMR students are now returning to classes where a lack of understanding of cultural and language differences and/or the teacher's inability or unwillingness to restructure the curriculum still prevails.

It is important for teachers to know that behavioral characteristics of retarded persons are very diverse and cover a wide range of performance and that their performance is not necessarily below average in all developmental areas, that is, students may have academic skills below age level but have social and emotional skills within the expected range. What students need is curriculum that values their uniqueness and cultural diversity. Despite the variability, there are general characteristics which are similar for students with slow cognitive development. These students often have difficulty in working with abstractions in concept formation

and in generalizing information. They have poor memory skills, poor attention spans, and are also rigid in their approach to problem solving. They do not abandon an approach that is not working as readily as other children. For these children repeated failure in academic areas result in a low tolerance of frustration (Meyen, 1978; DuCloss, 1977).

The educational management of EMR children is not vastly different from that of other students. Teaching procedures that are effective with nonhandicapped students can also be used with retarded students provided that:

- the methods are applied with accommodations to each pupil's state of readiness for instruction;
- there is more review and repetition of information with a wide variety of materials in different contexts and settings to help establish retention;
- material to be learned is divided into small but still meaningful units;
- new concepts are related to something concrete; and
- learning environments are as free from distractions as possible (Meyen, 1978).

Learning Disabled

Specific learning disability is defined as a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or using language, spoken or written, which may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or do mathematical calculations. This definition identifies children with significant learning problems that cannot be explained by mental retardation, sensory impairment, emotional disturbance, or lack of an opportunity to learn. These children

show specific and severe learning problems in spite of normal educational efforts (Meyen, 1978).

Specific characteristics have been identified that may assist the regular teacher who is trying to determine if certain behavior exhibited consistently by a child is indicative of a learning disability. It must be stressed, however, that not all students suspected of having a learning disability will display all of the characteristics associated with learning disabilities. Each student may exhibit his/her unique repertoire of characteristics. The following characteristics are those most cited as indicative of a learning disability:

- Hyperactivite-physical restlessness and distractability;
- General coordination deficits-clumsiness or awkwardness, fine and gross motor problems, and visual-motor problems;
- Disorders of attention-short attention span, distractibility, and perserveration;
- Impulsivity-related to the degree of hyperactivity;
- Disorders of memory and thinking-difficulty in retaining information and problems with abstract reasoning;
- Specific academic problems-in reading, writing, and spelling;
- Disorders of speech and hearing; and
- Equivocal neurological signs (Travers & Holloman, 1976).

Learning disabilities may be manifested in several forms. Children may have problems with verbal learning skills which may involve problems with the comprehension and use of oral language, reading, writing, written language, and arithmetic. They may have difficulty with nonverbal learning skills, such as spatial orient-

ation, directionality, and social perception. These difficulties have a profound effect on social and verbal learning.

An awareness of some misconceptions about the learning disabled student may help the teacher provide appropriate learning experiences. These misconceptions are:[Put on transparency TP-2.]

MYTH	FACT
1. Learning disabilities have nothing to do with environmental disadvantage.	Special educators now believe that a poor environment may be a contributing factor to learning problems.
2. Learning disabilities are not related to mental retardation or emotional disturbances.	It is possible for both mentally retarded and emotionally disturbed children to have learning disabilities-that is, not to achieve their potential.
3. All learning-disabled children have brain damage or dysfunction.	Although more learning disabled children are found to have central nervous system damage or dysfunction that "normal" children, it is possible to have a learning problem without any evidence or brain damage.
4. A child who is mixed-dominant (e.g., right-handed, left-eyed, left-footed, and right-eared) will have a learning disability.	While there is a slight tendency for mixed-dominance to occur more frequently in learning disabled compared to normal children, there are many children who learn normally who are also mixed-dominant.
5. All learning-disabled children have perceptual problems.	While perceptual problems are more frequent in learning-disabled children, as currently classified, some do not evidence perceptual problems (Hallahan & Kaufman, 1978).

Specific techniques are available to aid the regular teacher in the day-to-day management of children with learning problems. To create a success pattern for the learning disabled child, the teacher can use the following teaching/learning strategies:

- reduce the frustration level of the learning--disabled student by allowing them to use concrete learning aids as long as possible;
- teach according to the readiness level of the student;
- limit the size and complexity of tasks;
- give directions clearly, concisely, and slowly;
- provide work settings that are free from distractions;
- direct learning activities toward the student's strongest learning modality; and
- teach compensatory skills in areas in which the student is weak.

Because the learning disabled classification includes such a broad range of learning problems, no single remediation approach is adequate. Educational programming for the learning disabled student should seek to integrate knowledge of the individual's processing strengths and weaknesses in consideration of the skills that are to be taught. A major consideration then is to select learning tasks that the student can master and determine a method of teaching which assures that the student will learn (Meyen, 1978; Reynolds & Birch, 1977).

Behavior Disorders

Currently there is not a generally accepted definition of behavior disorders. Kaufman (1977) formulated the following definition:

Children with behavior disorders are those who chronically and markedly respond to their environment in socially unacceptable and/or personally unsatisfying ways but who can be taught more socially acceptable and personallu gratifying behavior.

A child may be considered to be behavior disordered if he/she demonstrates one or more of the following characteristics to a significant degree over a period of time:

1) Inability to learn which cannot be explained by intellectual or health factors;
2) Inability to build or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers;
3) Inappropriate types of behavior or feelings under normal conditions;
4) General, pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression; and
5) A tendency to develop symptoms, pain, or fear, associated with personal or school problems (Bowers, 1969).

The following are some misconceptions about behavior disordered children: [Put on transparency TP-3.]

MYTH	FACT
1. Most disturbed children escape the notice of people around them.	Although it is difficult to identify the types and causes of emotional disturbance, most disturbed children, whether they are the aggressive or the withdrawn type, are quite easy to spot.
2. Disturbed children are usually bright.	Relatively few disturbed children have above average intelligence; in fact, most mildly or moderately disturbed children are around 90 in IQ, while most severely or profoundly disturbed children, when they can be tested, have scores in the retarded range, that is, around 50.

MYTH	FACT
3. Children whose emotional disturbance exhibits itself in withdrawn behavior are more seriously impaired than are those whose behavior is hyperaggressive.	Children with aggressive, acting-out behavior have less chance for good social adjustment and mental health in adulthood. Neurotic, withdrawn children have a better chance of getting and holding jobs, overcoming their emotional problems, and staying out of jails and mental hospitals as adults.
4. Disturbed children need, above all, a permissive environment in which they feel accepted and can accept themselves for what they are.	Research shows that a firmly structured and highly predictable environment is of greatest benefit to disturbed children.
5. Only psychiatrists, psychologists, and social workers are able to help disturbed children overcome their problems.	Most teachers and parents can learn to be highly effective in helping disturbed children, often without extensive training or professional certification.
6. The undesirable behaviors we see a disturbed child perform are only symptoms of the problem, the real problems are hidden deep in the child's psyche.	There is no sound scientific basis for surmising hidden, underlying causes; the child's behavior and its social context are the problems. (Hallahan & Kaufman, (1978)

The behavior disordered category is one in which minorities, particularly male minority students, have been disproportionately placed. One reason for this placement is that minority students often come to school with competencies and modes of behavior that differ from those assumed to have been acquired by or associated with school-aged children. Their diverse competencies and modes of behavior are the result of cultural standards that are different for racial and ethnic minorities. For example, some minority child- may prefer to work in groups because of their having to share and team up with family members. Failure by educators to understand

and appreciate these differences and to use them effectively in planning learning experiences often leads to failure and misclassification of minority students (Meyen, 1978).

Academic failure is very high among behavior disordered students; therefore, learning problems may be encountered in addition to maladjustment problems. Thus, the regular teacher should closely assess the strengths and weaknesses of the behavior disordered student to ensure the development and the implementation of a program that is appropriate and provides success. Whatever program that is devised should provides activities that increase tne maladjusted child's awareness of self and others and increase his/her self-confidence (Laslett, 1979).

When working with behavior disordered children, teachers should try to demonstrate genuine concern and without prejudice accept the child as one who has problems to overcome. Laslett's (1979) suggestions to help the teacher work effectively with behavior disordered students are as follows:

- Ignore as much provocative behavior as possible and be prepared for the child's suspicions, hostility, and provocation;
- Set limits and make sure the child knows what they are;
- Avoid unnecessary confrontations and reactions to the child's behavior which are likely to seriously interrupt a working relationship with him/her;
- Pay periodic attention to the child to ascertain impending crises; and
- Deliver soft reprimands privately rather than loud public reprimands.

They should be seated near the teacher with face-to-face visibility, where they can observe the speaker's lip movements. Allowances should also be made for the student to change positions if necessary to continue to follow class activities. Teacher behavior can enhance a hearing impaired student's ability to lip read and understand what is being spoken. Therefore, teachers should use a normal, natural voice and avoid talking while:

- walking around the room;
- standing in front of windows;
- turning toward chalkboards; and
- looking down in books.

Adaptations to instructional activities can include the use of supplementary pictures and diagrams to support lessons. In addition, key words, phrases, and concepts central to a lesson should be written or shown on an overhead projector. If possible, assignments or directions should be written on the board or passed out to all students so that misunderstandings do not occur. Hearing impaired students find it difficult to listen to and watch the teacher while taking notes. Thus, assigning a pal who can provide a carbon copy of his/her notes can be very helpful to the hearing impaired student (Birch, 1975; Reynolds & Birch, 1977).

Integration of the hearing impaired requires team work on the part of educators, regular and special, parents, classmates, and other specialists. Regular teachers willing to use their professional skills, insight, and imagination can often be the key to a successful mainstreaming experience for a hearing impaired student.

Teacher-student and student-student relationships are very important in a classroom integrated with behavior disordered students. Maintaining a positive relationship that is perceived as supportive by the student as well as managing disruptive and disorderly behavior requires some balancing on the teacher's part.

In addition, the teacher must give attention to his/her relationship with the majority of the students in the class and the classes reaction to the maladjusted child (Laslett 1979). The teacher who can manage and help behavior disordered students adjust socially and improve academically is one who demonstrates maturity not superiority in helping these students function effectively in the regular classroom setting.

Physically Disabled

The physcially disabled population consists of students with functional limitations in the area of physical ability (hand use, trunk control, and mobility) and medical conditions (epilepsy, diabetes, cancer, and cardiac problems) which may affect strength and stamina (Meyen, 1978, p.361).

For students with physical disabilities, adaptations to instruction and the physical plant will vary according to the disability. The curricular needs of this population, however, do not generally require adaptation with the exception of physical education (Reynolds & Birch, 1977).

MYTH	FACT
1. Cerebral palsy is a contagious disease.	Cerebral palsy is not a disease in the usual sense. It is not contagious or progressive, and there are no remissions. It is a result of brain injury before, during, or soon after birth.
2. Most children with cerebral palsy have average or above-average intelligence.	The average tested IQ of children with cerebral palsy is lower than the average for normal children.
3. The more severely crippled people are the less intelligent they are.	A person may be severely crippled by cerebral palsy or another condition but have a brilliant mind.
4. People who have physical disabilities always have psychological problems.	There is no personality type associated with physical disability.
5. People with epilepsy are mentally ill.	People with epilepsy are not any more or less disposed to mental illness than are those who do not have epilepsy.
6. Arthritis is found only in adults, particularly in the elderly.	Arthritic conditions are found in people of any age, including young children.
7. Tuberculosis has been completely eliminated as a public health problem.	Tuberculosis still exists as a health problem; although great progress has been made in its control and treatment, it still occurs, particularly in poverty areas.
8. Tuberculosis is a disease found only in old people.	Tuberculosis is found in all age groups.
9. Tuberculosis is a disease of the lungs.	Tuberculosis can infect almost any organ system, though the lungs are most commonly involved. The larynx, bones and joints, skin, gastrointestinal tract, genitourinary tract, and heart may also be infected. (Hallahan & Kaufman, 1978)

The wide range and variability of disorders which physically disabled children suffer mean that there is no single strategem or limited cluster of strategies which an instructor may utilize to meet the needs of these children. For example, children with cerebral palsy may have vastly different instructional needs than children with cancer. To meet the instructional needs of the physically disabled there are instructional aids that the regular teacher can use depending, of course, on the disability. To assist students in communicating in speech and in writing, the teacher can use the following:

- regular or one hand typewriter
- communication board for nonvocal students
- tape recorder
- writing harness
- automated tele-communication system
- talking book machine
- special book holder
- automated page turner
- specially designed table

Crucial to the mobility problems of physically disabled students is the need to make adaptations to the physical plant so that they have access to the classroom, the restroom, and the cafeteria. As required by a federal law, architectural barriers such as doors too narrow for sheelchairs and inaccessible restroom stalls, are to be modified if they deny accessibility to physically disabled students.

In the classroom, the teacher can arrange the room and provide aids to facilitate the free and easy movement of physically disabled

students. Wide aisles, shelves near a child or crutch holders on chairs to store crutches, and shelves or bags attached to wheelchairs for school supplies are adaptations that the teacher and school can make (Reynolds & Birch, 1977).

The regular teacher can promote the social growth of physically disabled students by providing opportunities for them to work with nondisabled students and by encouraging them to evaluate themselves and their work realistically as they strive for maximum independence in all activities. In addition, the teacher can use adaptive techniques and educational materials that are suggested by special education personnel (Meyen, 1978).

Even thoush the physically disabled constitute a diverse group, the educational programming for physically disabled students should identify and provide experience that will lead to the attainment of four basic goals. These goals are as follows:

1) physical independence, including mastery of daily living skills;
2) self-awareness and social maturation;
3) academic growth; and
4) career education, including leisure activities.

The successful attainment of these goals depends on the commitment and ability of teachers to adapt tasks that allow students to develop maximum independence (Meyen, 1978).

Speech and Language Disorders

Speech and language that cannot be readily understood, communicates ineffectively, causes distractions, or elicits disapproval from listeners is considered to be defective. Speech and language problems may occur in isolation or in combination with other handicapping conditions such as hearing impairment, mental retardation, and other physical impairments. Classroom teachers are often in a position to recognize a child's speech and/or language probelm and refer him/her to a specialist. Common speech and language problems experienced by children include:

1. Fluency disorders--typically known as stuttering--speech is characterized by numerouse interruptions in the smooth flow of speech. These interruptions may take the form of repetitions of sounds or words (c-c-can), prolongations of sound (I-----saw), hesitations and interjections, (I uh, uh, uh);

2. Articulation defects--one of the most frequently found speech problems in school aged children and youth. Students with articulation problems may substitute one sound for another ("tookie for cookie"), omit sounds, ("ouse" for "house"), or distort sounds ("schtop" for "stop").

3. Voice disorders are highly unusual or defective vocal characteristics including problems with pitch (quality, volume, flexibility, and rate). Children who have voice problems have voices that are too high or low in pitch (in reference to the music scale), breathy, nasal, hoarse, flat and monotonous, too fast or so slow that that it is difficult to understand. Most voice disorders must be diagnosed by a speech pathologist in consultation with an ear, nose and throat doctor.

4. Language disorders--another frequently occurring problem - refers to difficulty in comprehending,expressing, or utilizing spoken language. Children with language disorders often experience difficulty in the academic areas of reading, writing, and mathematics. A distinction has been made between language delay and language disorders. Delayed language refers to language that is developing appropriately but at a slower rate than expected for the chronological age of the child (Reynolds & Birch, 1977; Meyen, 1978).

The following are misconceptions about speech and language disordered children: [Put on transparency TP-5.]

MYTH	FACT
1. Children with language disorders always have speech difficulties as well.	It is possible for a child to have a good articulation, and speech flow and yet not make any sense when he or she talks; however, most children with language disorders have speech disorders as well.
2. Individuals with speech difficulties or language disabilities are always emotionally disturbed or mentally retarded.	There are many children with speech and/or language disorders who are apparently normal in cognitive, social, and emotional areas.
3. A dialect used by someone from a culturally different group is in reality a speech disorder.	It is widely believed today that dialects used by children from minority groups represent valid languages with different phonological, grammatical, and syntactical rules.
4. Stuttering is primarily a disorder of people with extremely high IQ's.	Stuttering can affect individuals at any level of intellectual ability.
5. Children who stutter become stuttering adults.	Some children who stutter continue stuttering as adults; most, however, stop stuttering during adolescence. Stuttering is primarily a childhood disorder.
6. Disorders of articulation are never very serious and are always easy to correct.	Disorders of articulation can make speech unintelligible and it is sometimes very difficult to correct articulation problems, especially if the individual is retarded, disturbed, or cerebrally-palsied.

MYTH	FACT
7. A child with a cleft palate will have defective speech.	The child born with a cleft palate may or may not have a speech disorder, depending on the nature of the cleft, the medical treatment he receives, and other factors such as his psychological characteristics and the speech training he receives.
8. There is no relationship between intelligence and disorders of speech and language.	Speech and language disorders of all types occur more frequently among individuals of lower intellectual ability, although it is possible for these disorders to occur in individuals who are extremely intelligent. (Hallahan & Kaufman, 1978)

In addition to students who exhibit the speech and language problems listed above, teachers may also encounter students who speak non-standard English, such as Black dialect. Black dialect is now known to be a systematic, rule-governed language that is different from, but not inferior to, standard English. Although dialect speakers are not considered to have speech and language problems, some educators feel that the grammatical and phonological differences between standard and non-standard English may be great enough to cause reading problems. The issue of whether or not dialect speakers have reading problems has not been clearly settled. There are educators and researchers who support both views (Shafer, 1976; Granger, 1976). However, research has indicated that dialect speakers are often penalized in standard reading tests where scoring guidelines do not allow for errors related to different dialects (Harber, 1978). Teachers who instruct dialect speakers must be aware of the relationship and differences between standard and non-standard English and recognize that it is a viable communication system.

A goal for teachers then is to effectively capitalize on each student's ability to use whatever dialect he/she brings to the school situation by trying to understand his/her dialect and gradually expose the student to standard English.

Students identified as having speech and language problems are typically seen by a speech therapist once or twice a week. Often, support by the regular teacher of the speech and language program can substantially improve a student's skills. Teachers who use verbal praise, tangible reinforcement, or perform data collection on speech improvement and aid in the transfer of new skills to a setting other than the speech room. In addition to aiding in the transfer process, teachers can set good speech examples, perform stimulation programs in the classroom, and, if possible, conduct drill exercises that have been determined by the speech therapist (Meyen, 1978). Stimulation activities involve developing an activity or restructuring a routine activity so that some emphasis is placed on listening for or using different sounds, language structures, or vocal characteristics. Stimulation activities can be incorporated into the language arts program and can serve to further stimulate speech and language skills in students with speech problems as well as other students in the class.

It is important for the teacher to recognize that children with communication disorders are often embarrassed and insecure about speaking in class. Teachers who are sensitive, tolerant, and understanding will encourage good communications skills, discourage peer teasing and negative attitudes, and emphasize listening and speaking behavior to the benefit of all in the class (Meyen, 1978).

Visually Impaired

Visually impaired children are those whose vision despite corrective lenses is so limited that it interferes with learning through conventional methods. For educational purposes, the blind are those who are so severely impaired that they must be taught to read by braille. The partially sighted can read print even though they may need to use magnifying devices or books with large print. Visual impairment imposes restrictions on the range and variety of possible experiences and the ability of the individual to move about and control his/her environment.

Visually impaired children have been integrated in regular schools for many years. Their needs and the necessities required to meet these needs depend on the amount of residual vision the visually impaired have. They have had limited opportunities for many experiences acquired independently, vicariously, or remotely by seeing children. In addition, visually impaired children have not readily seen or acquired information pertaining to relationships among those things in the environment. These restrictions have definite implications for educational programming. Therefore, instruction should not only be concrete and stress relationships among things, but should also include common experiences which have not been acquired by the visually impaired student (Meyen, 1978; Reynolds & Birch, 1977).

There are some misconceptions about the visually impaired about which educators need to be aware. [Put on transparency TP-6.] They are that:

MYTH	FACT
1. Legally blind people have no sight at all.	Only a small percentage of those who are legally blind have absolutely no vision. The majority have a useful amount of functional vision.
2. The blind have an extra sense that enables them to detect obstacles.	The blind do not have an extra sense. They can develop an "obstacle sense," which is not inherent provided they have the ability to hear.
3. The blind automatically develop better acuity in their other senses.	Through concentration and attention the blind learn to make very fine discriminations in the sensations they obtain. This is not an automatic sensory acuteness, but rather represents a better use of received sensations.
4. The blind have superior musical ability.	The musical ability of the blind is not necessarily any better than that of sighted people. Apparently many blind individuals pursue musical endeavors because this is one way in which they can achieve success.
5. The blind are helpless and dependent.	With a good attitude and constructive learning experiences, a blind person can be as independent and possess as strong a personality as a sighted person.
6. If partially blind people use their eyes too much, their sight will deteriorate.	Marginal only in rare conditions is this true; visual ability can actually be improved through training and use. Strong lenses, holding books close to the eyes as much as possible cannot harm vision.
7. Seeing-eye dogs take blind people where they want to go.	The guide dog does not "take" the blind person anywhere; the person must first know where he or she is going. The dog is primarily a safeguard against unsafe areas or obstacles. (Hallahan & Kaufman, 1978)

Academic goals for visually impaired students are the same as for other children. However, educational goals such as educational readiness, sight utilization, braille reading, print reading, listening, orientation and mobility, and daily living skills must also be stressed- if the student is to successfully perform in his/her environment. These skills are, however, traditionally under the province of the vision specialist working with the student (Meyen, 1978).

The visually impaired compensate for loss of vision by combining tactile, kinesthetic, and auditory modalities. Regular teachers and specialists share in converting information and materials into a form that the visually impaired can use; however, content areas such as math and science, which heavily use pictures, diagrams, graphs, and measuring devices often present problems for the VI student because these items cannot always be presented in a form that is understandable to the tactile sense.

Visually impaired students require a variety of special education materials, such as their texts, other educational supplies, and adapted tools. If the student requires special materials the vision teacher will supply them in a medium the child can use (for example, tape, braille, or large type). Moreover, special materials for science projects, special aids for calculating, and braille codes for math are often available for the student. Even if there is a braille-reading student in the class, it is not necessary for the regular teacher to learn braille because the vision teacher will make adaptations such as transcribing worksheets, tests, and

other materials into braille and key them so the teacher can correct them. In addition, the vision teacher is available to teach compensation skills to the visually impaired student and to provide the regular educator with support, materials, and adaptive approaches (martin & Hoben, 1977).

Although the regular teacher will not be required to vastly alter the actual teaching of his/her class, teachers can assist in the smooth integration of VI students by attending to details in the structuring of the class. Because orientation and mobility are critical to VI students, visually impaired students should be informed prior to entering a class if furniture has been rearranged. Class members must be taught to push back chairs, and to keep items out of the aisles. Inasmuch as visually impaired students determine if doors are open or closed by auditory cues, they should be completely closed or open to avoid accidents (Martin & Hoben, 1977).

The merits of pairing a visually impaired student with normally seeing children must not be overlooked by the regular teacher. The pairing of a visually impaired student with a normally seeing child for activities like science projects, and some physical education activities is often very helpful and enhances the visually impaired student opportunities for learning and implements the least restrictive environment provision of P. L. 94-142.

Hearing Impaired

Hearing impairment is a broad term which indicates a hearing disability that may range from mild to severe. Individuals with hearing impairments are usually classified in one of two categories, deafness or hard of hearing. Deafness means the absence of hearing in both ears for all practical purposes. A hard of hearing person is one who generally, with the use of a hearing aid, has sufficient hearing to acquire language primarily through the auditory channel (Meyen, 1978).

Some misconceptions about the hearing impaired are as follows:

[Put on transparency TP-7.]

MYTH	FACT
1. Deafness leads automatically to inability to speak.	Even though hearing impairment, especially with greater degrees of hearing loss, a barrier to normal language development, most deaf people can be taught some use of language.
2. The deaf child is inherently lower in intellectual ability.	It is generally believed that the intellectual capacities of deaf and normal children are the same at birth, although the use of these abilities may differ depending upon language-dependency of concepts, motivation, learning experiences, parental instruction, and other factors.
3. Teaching the manual method of communication is harmful to the child and may hamper his development of oral language.	Most educators are acknowledging now that a combination of the manual and the oral methods, according to the needs of the individual child, is the best approach to teaching communication skills.

MYTH	FACT
4. A hearing aid is of no use to a person with sensorineural hearing loss.	While not as useful as with conductive hearing losses, hearing aids can sometimes help people with sensorineural impairments.
5. Hearing aids should not be used for hearing losses that are very mild or very severe.	There are no hearing losses too mild or too severe to prevent a person from trying a hearing aid.
6. A hearing aid lets the person hear exactly as does a normal person.	No hearing aid can ever completely compensate for a hearing loss; in general, hearing aids simply make sounds better.
7. Hearing losses in the high-frequency range cannot be corrected by a hearing aid.	This is no longer true because of the development of hearing aids that can be worn in places that do not involve amplification of distracting low-frequency sounds (Hallahan & Kaufman, 1978).

Three major teaching approaches (Manual, Oral, and Total Communication) are typically used with the hearing impaired. The approach that is used determines the communication system of the individual. The Manual method uses sign language and/or finger spelling. The Oral approach emphasizes the use of residual hearing, and students are taught to speak, read lips, and listen. The third approach called Total Communication is a combination of the Oral and Manual methods. These students use sign language and/or finger spelling in conjunction with oral speech and lip reading. Mainstreamed students who use the Manual and/or Total approach may have an interpretor who signs and finger spells what the teacher is saying. Many times teachers and students learn sign language and/or finger

spelling to communicate better with the hearing impaired student. The communication system used by the student is greatly influenced by such factors as the child's parents, the child himself/herself, the specialist's recommendations, and the type and degree of hearing loss (Birch, 1975; Meyen, 1978).

Regardless of the communication system used, many hearing impaired students will wear hearing aids in one or both ears. The regular teacher may want to hold a conference with the student, his/her parents, and the special education teacher to determine if:

- the child can be responsible for the aid;
- the special educator can trouble-shoot if problems occur with the use of the aid; and
- the special educator will indicate changes in how or when the student is to use the aid (Birch, 1975).

A difference in how the hearing impaired student behaves and performs can indicate to the teacher that an aid is not working properly or that the student is not wearing it.

The academic problems of most hearing impaired students are directly related to their impaired ability to normally acquire communication skills since the comprehension and use of language are critical to the learning process. Although hearing impairment affects learning in all academic areas, generally hearing impaired students have the intellectual capacity to learn the same curriculum that non-impaired students learn (Meyen, 1978).

Adaptation in such areas as seating arrangements, teacher behavior, and instructional activities all influence the ability of the hearing impaired student to function in a regular classroom.

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M E D I A

Film

Like You, Like [illegible] Encyclopedia Britannica
Color Film #35[illegible] Chicago, IL 60611 - 1977

A series of brief films introducing yound children to different handicapping conditions which constitute multiethnic, delightful, animated very positive presentation.

CLASS III

S E N S I T I V I T Y

LECTURE III

DEVELOPING SENSITIVITY TO HANDICAPPED AND CULTURALLY DIVERSE STUDENTS

INSTRUCTIONAL PLAN - CLASS III

Behavioral Objective	Enabling Activity		Materials
	Teacher Educator	Student	
1. The student will be able to identify four value clusters that affect the socialization and learning style of children.	• Lecture III	• Lecture III	1. Lecture III: Developing Sensitivity to Handicapped and Culturally Diverse Students.
2. The student will be able to discuss ways that the teacher can promote the development of cultural sensitivity in white middle-class students.	• Lecture III	• Lecture III	2a.) Lecture III: b.) Handout III-1: The Four M Curriculum: A Way To Shape The Future.
3. The student will be able to discuss the impact of cultural diversity on curriculum.			

HANDOUTS, TRANSPARENCIES (APPENDIX)

CLASS III

Handouts

HO III-1	The Four M Curriculum: A Way To Shape The Future

To value diversity is to be knowledgeable of and to accept differentness (Chinn, 1979). Crucial to accepting differentness is a knowledge of the socialization of Black and other minority students which makes them different from white middle-class students. The socialization of minority students will determine their learning style and interactive behavior.

Value Clusters

Castaneda (1971) identifies clusters of values that are determinants of socialization practices that influence the student's behavior socially and academically in the learning climate. These clusters of values affect the manner in which the child is socialized. These clusters are as follows:

- communication style
- human relations style
- incentive-motivation style
- the methods or styles of teaching that the child receives from his family

Castaneda further contends that the four value clusters affecting the socialization of the child determine the characteristics of the child's learning styles. The child enters school with firmly developed characteristics. They are as follows:

- a preferred mode of communication, bor example, speaking Spanish only, some or Barrio Spanish, or non-standard English;
- a preferred mode of relating to others, such as expecting personalized direction from adults;
- a preference for certain incentives over others. For example, he might be more motivated by rewards emphasizing family achievement over self-achievement; and

- a cluster of cognitive characteristics which reflect his/her preferred mode of thinking, perceiving, remembering and problem solving.

The learning styles of Mexican-American children are in conflict with that of the white middle class (Castaneda, 1977). This observation is consistent with the learning-style conflict experienced by Blacks. Compounding the conflict is the condition of being handicapped. If a child has a handicap and is non-white what specific knowledge and competence does the teacher need to appropriately meet the diverse needs of this child, given that the child is placed in the least restrictive environment which more often than not is the regular classroom? The implication is that the regular educator will possess the competence to serve each child in the classroom with the assistance and support of auxiliary personnel if needed. [The specific characteristics of handicapping conditions and information that regular educators need to teach children with handicapping conditions were discussed in Lecture II.]

Regrettably, when the student's learning style differs from the dominant culture's learning style, which is the teaching/learning mode of the public school, the student is often viewed as "culturally deprived," "language handicapped," or "mentally retarded," a category into which many Black students have been placed. Dr. David Sanchez, a San Francisco Board of Education member (1971), addressed the issue of unfavorable attitudes toward ethnic minorities. On behalf of the Spanish-speaking child, Sanchez expressed in the statement excerpted below the sentiments of ethnic and racial minorities who are often treated and viewed as outsiders in the public school:

> Equal education has been a fraud. How can there exist equal education if some of the students are looked on as defective? The injuries of the Latin-American child have been inflicted by those who have claimed to teach and motivate him, who have in reality, alienated him and destroyed his identity through the subtle rejection of his language, which nobody speaks, his culture, which nobody understands, and ultimately him, who nobody values.

Developing Cultural Sensitivity

Students come to school with stereotypic views of racial and ethnic minorities and of handicapped persons. For example, it is not uncommon for a deaf person to be referred to as 'deaf and dumb' and to be treated as if he/she were in fact dumb. To combat stereotypic views, the classroom teacher can hold discussions; include minority perspectives, varied teaching/learning strategies, and accomplishments of minority persons in the development and delivery of curriculum, and exhibit behaviors that engender the development of cultural sensitivity and a positive self-concept.

Discussion

Discussion is recognized and accepted as a means of finding out how/what a person thinks or feels and of working out differences. By encouraging discussions on race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status, the teacher can help students air their biases. This can be beneficial to the students and the teacher in that the biases voiced can be addressed openly and constructively. The teacher can point out the commonalities that exist for all students and at the same time help students accept difference as a positive attribute.

Certainly both the teacher and the student would acknowledge how dull and uninteresting the class would be if every student were the same in appearance, speech, response, intellectual capacity, and personality.

Using discussions to develop an awareness and acceptance of diversity assumes, of course, that the teacher himself/herself has wrestled with his/her biases that denigrate and adversely portray minority individuals and, as a consequence, views minorities as individuals who have value and a right to be treated with respect. Sometimes discussions and events that call forth biases may cause some students discomfort. However, feelings of discomfort may be warranted if students discover that they are alike in many ways but different in other ways that do not preclude positive interaction. Tiedt (1979) states the following regarding discomfort:

> Feeling comfortable is an indulgence only white middle-class people can afford. The groups of students who might be made uncomfortable by being singled out for discussion are non-white, non-middle class students.... these students already feel uncomfortable.

Curriculum

In designing curriculum and a delivery system, the teacher must consider students' ethnicity and culture (Dabney, 1976). What is to be taught and how it is to be taught should reflect sensitivity to cultural diversity while fulfilling cognitive and affective needs. For minority group children, this means that their communication style, human relations style, incentive--motivation style, and preferred mode of thinking, perceiving, remembering, and problem solving will significantly affect the curriculum and teaching/learning system.

Whereas the public school curriculum is traditionally structured on white middle-class norms which are biased toward minority children, other curricula that consider the needs of minority students can be developed by the classroom teacher. Such a curriculum is one that results from the identification of the cognitive and affective needs of minority handicapped or culturally different students and one that is criterion-referenced/diagnostic-prescriptive in nature with attention to the uniqueness and cultural context of the individual. To accommodate the curricular needs of uniquely different individuals Sizemore (1979) recommends the Four M Curriculum which entails a reordering of hierarchial skills, a resequencing of language and mathematics, the development of multilingual and multi-cultural content and the utilization of multiage groups with counseling, guidance, and career development services.

The culture-sensitive curriculum is one that fosters the development of cultural sensitivity in the white middle-class school population and a positive self-concept and pride in handicapped minority students. Some curricular adaptations that the regular teacher can make to encourage sensitivity to cultural differences are as follows:

1) including the contributions of minority and handicapped persons as a regular part of the curriculum;
2) inviting successful handicapped minority persons to speak to his/her class;
3) showing films such as "The Me Nobody Knows";
4) pairing non-handicapped students with handicapped students in tutorial relationships; and
5) evidencing approval of and respect for minority handicapped students in one's interaction.

Positive Teacher Behavior

The appropriate education, individualized education program, nondiscriminatory testing, and least restrictive environment provisions of P. L. 94-142 require teachers to view handicapped children as individuals who can be and have a right to be educated. To implement the spirit of the law requires teachers to acknowledge, respond to, and value the diversity of students. When a child feels that he/she is valued by his/her peers, teachers, and parents, he/she can reciprocate supportive, cooperative behavior and grow socially and intellectually.

Pepper (1976) offers suggestions that the regular educator can use to develop sensitivity to cultural diversity and to improve the self-concept of minority children. Although identified as workable with Indian children, these suggestions are applicable to Black, handicapped Black, and other minority children:

1) teach the true history of the different minority groups and the value of these cultures to all children;
2) value and accept the child as he/she is;
3) use words that build the child's self-esteem and feelings of adequacy;
4) show faith in the child so the child can believe in himself/herself; and
5) plan experiences that are guaranteed to give success.

Although the public education system is Anglo-centric and thus, prepared to teach primarily white middle-class students, the poly- cultural nature of the school population requires curricular and instructional modality adaptations. These adaptations must be in response to Black, Spanish-speaking, poor, and handicapped

students who do not identify with nor readily embrace middle-class cultural constructs. Therefore, the classroom teacher, as well as other school personnel, must change their attitudes, the curriculum, and instructional strategies in order to give credibility and significance to the educational needs of cultrually diverse handicapped students. Public Law 94-142 has provided the framework for educating culturally diverse handicapped students. It is now left to the public education system to honor and live up to that law.

NAME: _____ DATE: _____

PROFESSOR: _____

Valuing the Diversity of Minority Handicapped Students

POST-ASSESSMENT

DIRECTIONS: Each lettered set of headings is followed by a numbered set of items. For each item select the ONE MOST CLOSELY RELATED heading and place the letter of the heading on the line preceding the item.

1.

a)	Behavior disorders	e)	Blindness
b)	Learning disability	f)	Mental retardation
c)	Multiple handicap	g)	Impaired hearing
d)	Deafness	h)	Visual impairment

____ A disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or using language, spoken or written, which may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell or do mathematical calculations.

____ Limited visual acuity which despite corrective lenses limits learning through conventional methods.

____ Those who chronically and markedly respond to their environment in socially unacceptable and/or personally unsatisfying ways but who can be taught more socially acceptable and personally gratifying behavior.

____ Absence of hearing in both ears for all practical purposes.

____ Significantly subaverage general intellectual functioning existing concurrently with deficits in adaptive behavior and manifested during the developmental period.

DIRECTIONS: For each numbered item, supply the correct response.

2. Special aids that visually impaired students may require are:

_____, _____, and _____.

3. Instructional aids such as _____, _____, and _____ may be used by physically disabled students in oral and written communication tasks.

DIRECTIONS: For each numbered item there is a lettered set of alternative answers or completions. Select the BEST ONE for each item. Circle your response.

4. Which ONE of the following is NOT a value cluster that affects the socialization and learning style of children?

a) communication style
b) human relations style
c) eating-sleeping styly
d) incentive-motivation style

5. Which ONE of the following is NOT a strategy for developing cultural sensitivity?

a) holding discussions that encourage students to air biases;
b) modifying curriculum to reflect minority student's value clusters and skill needs;
c) exhibiting positive behaviors in interacting with minority handicapped students;
d) isolating handicapped students that do not fit in with nonhandicapped students.

6. The physically disabled are individuals who have:

a) limited physical movement;
b) cognitive problems as well as physical problems;
c) functional problems with physical ability and medical conditions which affect strength and stamina;
d) problems with trunk control and mobility.

DIRECTIONS: Each numbered item is preceded by T (true) and F (false). Circle T or F to indicate whether the statement is true (T) or false (F).

T F 7. The theory of cultural deficit incorporates as one element the idea that children who come to school lacking middle-class constructs and behavior are 'ready' for school.

T F 8. The theory of cultural difference incorporates as one element the idea that children who come to school lacking middle-class constructs and behaviors are 'ready' for school.

T F 9. Curriculum for physically disabled students typically requires substantial adaptations.

T F 10. Visual aids that supplement instruction are important for hearing impaired students.

T F 11. Visually impaired students require a limited amount of special education material.

T F 12. Language arts lessons can be structured to provide stimulation activities for speech and language disordered students.

T F 13. When possible, teachers should ignore the provocative behavior exhibited by students with behavior problems.

T F 14. Selection of a task the student can learn and determination of a method for teaching the task are not important factors to consider when working with learning disabled students.

ESSAY: Be brief.

15. Discuss the impact of teacher attitudes on the education of culturally diverse handicapped students.

16. Discuss ways to facilitate the mainstreaming of special needs students.

17. Discuss the impact of cultural diversity on curriculum.

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A P P E N D I X

GLOSSARY

ARTICULATE	to utter distinctly; pronounce carefully; enunciate.
COGNITIVE STYLE	the manner in which one gains knowledge.
DIVERSITY	difference
ETHNIC	divisions of mankind or of a heterogeneous population, as distinguished by customs, characteristics, language; a common history.
FLUENT	able to write or speak easily, smoothly, and expressively.

The Exceptional Minority Child: Issues and Some Answers

PHILIP C. CHINN

THE topic of the exceptional minority child is one which is so broad in issues that it is difficult to address even the most salient ones. Delineating the issues, however, is a far less formidable task than providing answers. To even begin with the identification of the issues it is necessary to predetermine what group or groups are being discussed. One view is to take a typical definition of *exceptional children* and add a definition of *minority* to it. The various special education definitions of *exceptional* are fairly congruent with one another, but a definition for *minority* will find diverse opinions regarding its meaning. For the purpose of this article, the definition adopted by The Council for Exceptional Children (CEC) will be used.

The CEC Delegate Assembly in 1971 approved an amendment to the Bylaws that provides for the following definition:

> A minority group is any group which because of racial or ethnic origin constitutes a distinctive and recognizable minority in our society. Present examples of minority groups would include Blacks or Afro-Americans, American Indians, Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Oriental (Asian) Americans. (CEC *Handbook*, 1978, p. 87)

Examples of exceptional minority children might include a gifted Black child, a learning disabled Mexican American child, or a visually impaired Asian American child. Stereotyping is a major complaint of many who work with minority children. It would be well to advise here that the examples provided in this article are meant to be examples; they are not meant to imply that they are necessarily typical of all children of a particular ethnic group.

Cultural Diversity and Exceptionality

The relationship of cultural diversity to exceptionality is one that has frequently generated discussion and debate. One overriding question is asked: Is a culturally different child an exceptional child? The response is both "yes" and "no." Children whose cultural difference distinguishes them from others to the extent that the differentness requires instructional or curricular modifications in order to provide an optimum educational experience can likely be considered exceptional. Thus, the new non-English speaking emigrant from Hong Kong or the Native American Indian child who lives in an isolated area of a reservation and speaks only a negligible amount of English may both be exceptional in a typical classroom. Their exceptionality is not a function of their ethnicity but is due to the fact that they are so culturally different from the majority child.

On the other hand, a great number of children from minority backgrounds could hardly be considered culturally different. They have become so acculturated and assimilated into the dominant groups that they could not reasonably be considered exceptional in this sense.

Thus we have two views of exceptionality as it relates to minorities, and the views are not necessarily exclusive of each other. A child who is exceptional because of giftedness or a handicapping condition may also be exceptional because of cultural differences.

Serving the Exceptional Minority Child

The primary focus of this article is to suggest that for many exceptional minority children there are educational needs that have not been provided for. Certainly, there are many minority children in special education classes, particularly in classes for the mentally retarded where disproportionately high numbers of minority children have been reported (Mercer, 1973). With respect to giftedness, Torrance (1977) suggested that there is a great deal of giftedness among the culturally different, but traditional identification procedures such as

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April 1979

Chinn, P., The exceptional minority child: Issues and some answers. Exceptional Children, 1979, 45, 532-536.

intelligence tests are inappropriate for discovering giftedness among culturally different groups.

Thus, among handicapped minority children many are being provided educational services, but it is often questionable whether these services appropriately provide for the cultural difference that may accompany the handicap. Apparently, many of the gifted minority children are not yet served. The focus of this article, therefore, is those who are yet to be served and those who are yet to be served appropriately.

Identifying the Exceptional Minority Child

In May 1978 the Delegate Assembly of CEC approved a set of Minorities Position Policy Statements (CEC, 1978). Among the many policies and positions in this extensive document is "Section 300 Identification, Testing, and Placement." Concerns expressed in this section of the Position Policy Statements include the fact that tests, particularly norm referenced tests, exaggerate group differences and underscore group inferiority. Secondly, data from these tests are frequently used to place minority children in lower ability groups or special education programs. Coupled with Torrance's concerns, it would appear that many minority children, at least in the past, have not been properly tested, and that many of he assessment instruments used have been biased and not culture free.

Public Law 94-142 (1975) contains sections that specifically address the issues related to nonbiased, culture free evaluation procedures and disallow federal monies to state or local education agencies that fail to employ nondiscriminatory testing and evaluation procedures. Mercer's recently published System of Multicultural Pluralistic Assessment (SOMPA) has been normed on White, Black, and Mexican American children. It holds considerable promise and is a step in the right direction.

With respect to gifted minority children, Torrance (1977) suggested the use of two instruments that seem to lack cultural bias. They are the Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking and Taylor and Ellison's Alpha Biographical Inventory. Torrance further suggested a number of nonpsychometric approaches to discovering giftedness among the culturally different.

Torrance developed a list of 18 creative positives (e.g., fluency and flexibility in figural media), which are sets of characteristics he believes can assist in identifying strengths and giftedness among culturally different students. He contended that these creative positives exist to a high degree among culturally different groups. Torrance further suggested that the incidence of giftedness within these groups would be higher if his means of identification were used as compared to more traditional means.

The creative positives may be detected by tests, observation of behavior, performance, constructions, or any means whatsoever. These abilities, Torrance stated, "for the most part . . . can be observed with a high degree of frequency among culturally different students by anyone who is willing to become a sensitive, open-minded human being in situations where trust and freedom are established" (p. 25).

Funding and Meeting the Issues

The 1978 Minorities Position Policy Statements provide The Council for Exceptional Children with a mandate to determine the issues and to assume a leadership position in providing adequate educational programing for exceptional minority children. Some steps have been taken and others are planned that would provide some answers and facilitate future planning.

A CEC telephone grapevine survey is now being used by CEC staff to interview individuals with a background, interest, or expertise in exceptional minority child education. These telephone surveys should yield information related to the education of exceptional minority children, including the identification of (a) key issues in curricula and instructional methodology, (b) individuals with expertise in the area, (c) model programs that provide unique services, (d) needed publications, and (e) needed areas of research and development.

A miniconference for invited individuals identified in the telephone survey will convene at CEC Headquarters in Reston, Virginia, in spring 1979. The purpose of this meeting is to examine and discuss the findings of the grapevine survey and to provide CEC with specific recommendations for needed activities related to exceptional minority child education.

Two CEC open forums have also facilitated

the information gathering activities. The CEC Career Education Conference and the International Convention have included open forums in which audience participation was encouraged to provide opinions and information regarding educational programing and future CEC activities related to minority children.

A CEC survey is also planned to determine which special education training programs have specific courses emphasizing curricula and instructional methodology for exceptional minority children. Those with programs will be urged to send their course outlines and syllabi to CEC, which will serve as a clearinghouse for dissemination.

Other positive steps can be made at national, state, and local levels. Standing committees in state and local education agencies to address minority concerns such as testing, curriculum, and instruction can ensure some attention to this needed area. Other organizations concerned with exceptional children, such as the American Association on Mental Deficiency and the National Association for Retarded Citizens, have established standing committees or are involved with special projects related to exceptional minority individuals. Interaction between these organizations to share publications, project results and research findings will enhance the dissemination of information in this area. Joint topical conferences and institutes may be a viable means to bring together individuals who share common goals and interests. A national center is needed to collect and disseminate curricula, instructional materials, and other relevant information related to exceptional minority children.

Until Then . . .

While the issues are being determined, the curricula developed, the instructional strategies formulated, and the publications prepared, there are some efforts that can facilitate the educational process for these exceptional minority children. There are two major instructional concerns related to the exceptional minority child: self concept and motivation. While these are areas of concern for all exceptional children, particularly the handicapped, this is an area of heightened concern for those of minority background.

Developing Positive Self Concepts

It has been said that the handicapped minority child suffers a "double whammy." Not only must these children cope with their differentness due to their minority status, but they must also face the realities of being handicapped and must struggle with the effort to maintain or develop a positive self concept. Pepper (1976), a Native American Indian educator, emphasized the problems and the importance of developing positive self concepts of Indian children. The same can be said for any minority child, for there are numerous factors that potentially damage their self perceptions. The existence of blatant racism cannot be denied by the objective observer and deserves no further discussion in this article. The subtle forms of racism are even more insidious, because they are often perpetrated unknowingly by both minority and nonminority individuals. The careful observer will find distorted stereotyping in television, motion pictures, and other forms of media and can understand the potential damage to minority children. Stereotyping, distortions, and omissions so common in US history books have further depreciated the self image of many minority children who have read and believed.

Fortunately, recent efforts have helped correct many misconceptions about minorities. The successful television series based on Alex Haley's (1976) book Roots has brought a sense of pride and identity to many Black children and has developed understanding and sensitivity among others.

The high suicide rates reported by Pepper (1976) among Indians and by Chinn (1973) among San Francisco Chinatown residents suggest that among segments of the minority population there exist feelings of despair and futility. Those Native American Indians who have remained steeped in tradition find themselves torn between two worlds. The traditional world places expectations by which Indians have lived for generations. The world of the majority group often imposes restrictions that can neither provide for nor permit the traditional world to remain in full existence. Frustrated and confused, the mental health of these individuals is often affected.

The emigrant from Hong Kong often possesses few marketable skills, and language barriers create greater obstacles. Refuge is often found in the ghettos of New York's and San Francisco's Chinatowns, where abominable living conditions are matched only by the working conditions in which the emigrant is exploited by submi:imum wages and long

work days. Caught in seemingly hopeless circumstances, these individuals, like their Indian counterparts, are often unable to maintain necessary mental health in the family. The children's self concept is further diminished by observing the problems of their parents, who are unable to serve as adequate models.

Anyone who has observed ghetto children play knows that athletic activities are taken seriously. Playground basketball or sandlot baseball promote vigorous competition. Becoming another Tony Dorsett, Danny "Little Red" Lopez, or Roberto Clemente is a fast one way ticket out of the ghetto. Sensory and physical handicaps, however, all but preclude competition, and even mental retardation can create problems since many athletic activities are so highly structured. Even if the child does not have athletic interests, most of the jobs that are typical for individuals from some minority backgrounds are manual and require physical competence. Some minority parents see education as a means for their children to raise their socioeconomic standards. Mental retardation and learning disabilities are serious barriers to such goals. Thus many handicapped children are often not able to meet either their own expectations or those of their parents, further depreciating their self concept.

Fostering Motivation

Related to self concept is motivation. A frequent complaint of special education teachers is the lack of motivation demonstrated by minority students. "Study hard and be somebody" has been echoed in many classrooms. Who are the models for these children? An uncle who sits around the reservation all day wishing there were work for him; an older sister who works in a garment factory 10 hours a day; a father who picks lettuce, oranges, or anything so that he can feed his family. These examples certainly do not represent the occupations of all minorities, but they are true for many. How can these children read with excitement about Tracy's father who is an airline pilot when they have never been in an airplane or even so much as seen a picture which would suggest that a minority child, let alone one who is female, could reasonably aspire to become a pilot.

Special education teachers often complain that they have little or no support from minority parents who demonstrate indifference to their child's education. These parents were once told that education would help them to become someone, but few of the dreams or promises have been fulfilled, for whatever reasons.

Developing Teacher Sensitivity

The development of sensitivity on the part of teachers and administrators is critical to the adjustment of culturally different children in the school setting. There are some who would argue that only minority teachers can effectively teach minority children. A poor minority teacher is equally as ineffective as a poor nonminority teacher. Segregating minority children so that they can have a minority teacher is a highly questionable staffing pattern. It is unlikely that any teacher, including a minority teacher, can become completely knowledgeable with respect to characteristics and needs of children of all minority groups. Sensitivity, therefore, is one of the most desirable qualities in teachers of minority children. Sensitivity can be viewed in terms of responding, appreciating, and allowing differentness. Sensitivity suggests an open mind that is receptive to the cultural contributions each child in the class can offer. Sensitivity can develop through learning from the children, from the numerous publications on cultural diversity, and by the individual's receptiveness to experiences in cultural diversity available in the community.

A teacher who has become culturally sensitive is better equipped to help a minority child develop a positive self concept. When a teacher values a child, self concept is likely to improve. Further, the attitude of the teacher is often reflected in the entire classroom. When a teacher values the culture of a child and makes it known to the other children, it is likely that they too will value cultural diversity. Pepper's (1976) suggestions to improve the self concept of Indian children are equally applicable to other minority children:

1. Teach the true history of the different minority groups and the value of these cultures to all children.
2. Value and accept the child as he or she is.
3. Use words that build the child's self esteem and feelings of adequacy.
4. Show faith in the child so the child can believe in himself or herself.

5. Plan for experiences that are guaranteed to give success.

Motivation is closely associated with self concept, as an enhanced self concept will strengthen the motivation of a child. The development of sensitivity opens the door for the creation of trust between teacher and child, and between teacher and parent. With this trust comes a working relationship. The development of these relationships is obviously not as easy to establish as it is to read about. Trust and respect may take weeks or months, as will the development of sensitivity.

In developing other skills in teaching these children, there are few if any cookbook approaches that can serve the teacher's needs. Enlightenment in cultural diversity and a careful study of the idiosyncrasies of each ethnic group, coupled with sound special education techniques, will provide a basic foundation for meeting the needs of these children. While many of these children are yet to be served, educators can at least provide a starting place.

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in the mainstream

Many teachers wonder... will the special-needs child ever really belong?

Cooperative learning groups can bring kids together

David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson

PLACING special-needs students in the regular classroom is the beginning of an opportunity. But like all opportunities, it carries a risk of making matters worse as well as the possibility of making them better. If things go badly, handicapped students can be stigmatized, stereotyped, and rejected. Even worse, they may be ignored or treated with paternalistic care. But if things go well, true friendships and positive relationships can form between the normal-progress and handicapped students.

What does the regular classroom teacher do to ensure that mainstreaming goes well? What is needed is a straightforward teaching strategy that improves performance and builds positive relationships between handicapped and normal-progress students as they attend school together.

Structuring to ensure integration

How can the classroom teacher structure the interaction that special-needs children will have with other students in the class? The teacher has only three alternatives: *independent* (no interaction), *competitive* (one wins, one loses), or *cooperative* (both can win).

1. The teacher could have the special-needs child and the other students work alone, *independent* of each other. Each could work on material specifically suited for his own ability level, without affecting the achievement he. Yet such a practice leaves the special child isolated from his normal-progress peers and creates a situation in which he may be disliked or ignored for being "different."

2. The teacher could place the special-needs child in a *competitive* relationship with other students. Competition is based on students doing better than their classmates. If one student wins, the other students lose. A competitive climate among students is out of the question in a mainstreaming class as it promotes the rejection of low-ability students as "losers."

3. The teacher can place the special child in *cooperative* learning groups with normal-progress peers. He and his peers complete lessons as a group, making sure that everyone in the group understands the material. In a cooperative climate, students have a vested interest in ensuring that other group members learn, as the group's success depends on the achievement of all members. Helping, sharing, peer tutoring, peer encouragement, and peer acceptance are all hallmarks of cooperative learning experiences. *Cooperation is the only learning structure that is consistent with the purpose of mainstreaming.*

Structuring learning cooperatively

What do teachers do to set up heterogeneous cooperative learning groups and ensure that they operate effectively? The following framework has

ating a cooperative lesson design. Modify it to fit your own classroom.

1. *As far as possible, specify the instructional goals of the lesson.* In the case of a math lesson, the goal might be to have every student master the basic math skills needed to work the assigned problems.

2. *Select the group size most appropriate for the lesson.* With young or unskilled students, the best group size is two or three members. With older or more skilled students, larger groups are possible.

3. *Assign students to groups.* Although teachers usually try to maximize the heterogeneity in each group, there are times when homogeneous groups are useful. A common procedure in those cases is to give the class a pretest and then assign one high student, two average students, and one low student to each cooperative group.

4. *Arrangement of groups.* Arrange the classroom so that group members are close together and the groups are spread far apart.

5. *Provide the appropriate materials.* In the case of a math lesson, each group might be given 12 story problems, one answer sheet, and a checklist for each member entitled "How well did the group and I work today? What did I learn?"

6. *Explain the task and the cooperative goal structure.* For a math group the task might be to solve the story problems and ensure that all group

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each one. Members indicate their understanding by signing the group's answer sheet. (An alternative to the single answer sheet is to give each student an individual test on the material.) The cooperative structure involves a group goal (complete the assignment), criteria for success (perfect score is excellent, 90 percent correct is good, 70 percent correct is acceptable), an awareness that all group members receive the same reward, an understanding of cooperative actions to engage in while they are working together (listening carefully to each other, praising each other, checking to make sure everyone understands the material), and the realization that they are not competing with each other or with other groups.

7. *Observe the student-student interaction.* Just because teachers ask students to cooperate with each other does not mean they will always do so. Through observing, teachers can spot problems students are having as they learn to work together cooperatively.

8. *Intervene* as a consultant to help the group (a) solve its problems in working together effectively, (b) learn the interpersonal and group skills necessary for cooperating, and (c) check that all members are learning the assigned material. Reduce the special student's fear of working with normal-progress peers by giving him a structured role to fulfill in the group. The next step is to teach the normal-progress students some helping skills so that they can explain material more successfully to the special student. You can also teach the special child cooperation skills that will help the group work.

9. *Evaluate* the group products, using a criteria-referenced evaluation system. If a mainstreamed student is unable to do the assigned work, the teacher may wish to use different criteria in evaluating his work, assign less material to be learned, give different material, or use improvement scores. At the end of each lesson teachers can have students complete a checklist on how well they worked together.

10. *Reinforce the cooperation* by judging each group only on its own progress, and by praising cooperative behavior in all aspects of class activity. Set a cooperative class climate.

Turn page

Results you can expect

There is considerable evidence that cooperative learning experiences promote higher academic achievement of all students than do competitive or individualistic learning structures. Cooperative learning is especially superior to competition with peers or working individually when the task requires conceptual thinking and problem solving. This is especially true for low- and average-ability students.

In the affective domain, we have found that cooperative learning groups are far superior to competitive or individualistic learning structures in promoting friendships between normal-progress and handicapped students. Normal-progress students in cooperative groups see handicapped peers as being more valuable and more capable; wish to do schoolwork with handicapped peers more often; report giving help to and receiving help from handicapped peers more often; choose handicapped peers as friends more often; wish to associate more with handicapped peers in non-school settings, such as parties; and seek out handicapped peers for more friendly and less hostile interaction in postinstructional situations. We have also found that when students participate in heterogeneous cooperative groups, they choose low-ability students just as frequently as they choose high-ability peers.

Students labeled as emotionally disturbed and learning disabled also display more appropriate social behavior after participating in cooperative groups than do matched students working in competitive or individualistic structures.

Cooperation is basic

The importance of cooperative learning experiences goes beyond the integration of special needs students into the regular classroom and the resulting increases in achievement and social skills. Cooperation is basic to human beings. Being able to perform technical skills, such as reading and math, is of use only when the person can apply these skills in interaction with other people. The ability of students to work cooperatively with others is the keystone to building and maintaining stable families, friendships, and careers.

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TEACHING THE BEHAVIOR DISORDERED CHILD

RICHARD S. NEEL

Neel, R., Teaching the Behavior disordered child. Early Years, 1979, 9, 22-30.

Teaching reading to mainstreamed sensory impaired children

LOIS SAUER DEGLER
VICTORIA J. RISKO

Specific methods and materials are suggested for reading instruction of visually handicapped and hearing impaired children in a regular classroom.

IS YOUR school mainstreaming special children into the reading program? Can teachers really provide effective reading instruction for children with special needs within the regular classroom? We think so.

Visually handicapped and hearing impaired children are children like any others; thus, educational goals are the same as for all children. The learner's handicap, however, suggests that certain methods and materials, adapted to the specific requirements set by the individual impairment, may be more effective in achieving goals of competence in reading.

It is always difficult and perhaps dangerous to categorize a group of children, yet it is important to have some sense of what may be considered typical of sensory impaired children. Following is a discussion of these children's characteristics that most directly relate to reading instruction. Given an understanding of probable learning strengths and weaknesses, implications for reading instruction become apparent.

Visually handicapped and hearing impaired children have been deprived of clear and/or complete sensory input for much or all of their experience; thus their conceptual development is probably more limited than normal children's. One consequence of uneven development is that these children often lack some underlying, assumed concept and hence are unable to acquire related concepts.

Visually handicapped children

Visually handicapped children have had incomplete or distorted visual input when encountering the world and attempting to order their experiences. Other sensory input some-

Degler, L., & Risko, V., Teaching reading to mainstreamed sensory impaired children. Reading Teacher, 1979, 32, 921-5.

what compensates for their restricted vision, but these children often acquire fragmentary data instead of integrated constructs.

Many aspects of our world need to be seen to be really known. Some are too large (a jumbo jet), too distant (cirrus clouds), too fragile (bubbles), or too dangerous (a blaze) for visually handicapped children to see or easily experience them. Because of vision loss these children may have been "shielded" and thus denied certain experiences which would aid in concept development. For instance, a child who cannot see an eagle soaring must personally experience soaring, perhaps on a swing or a carnival ride, in order to develop even a rudimentary concept. For the visually handicapped such concepts, and many others often assumed known by teachers and basal materials, may be incomplete.

Other concepts may also be poorly developed. The visually handicapped may have poor eye movements and binocular teaming, refractive difficulties, and eye-hand coordination problems. As a result they may receive incomplete or distorted images, be unable to focus consistently, or lack orientation to pictures, models, or a printed page. The end result again is lack of the clear, complete and consistent data needed to develop accurate concepts.

Hearing impaired children

Hearing impaired children have not had full use of the language around them. Thus they have been deprived of some of the feedback children get from the language of others as they test out their developing sense of language structures, processes and concepts. As a result, hearing impaired children are often deficient in the reception and production of more complex sentences; they may also have fragmentary concepts. (Of course, hearing impaired children may also have difficulty discriminating specific speech sounds and in accurately producing these sounds in their own speech.) Structure words and morphological endings, because they are usually unaccented, may not be heard clearly and hence the concepts they signal may not be adequately grasped. Similarly, words that have minimal sound differences would be confusing and harder to learn. Multiple meanings of words and colloquial expressions present difficulties for most physically normal children; incomplete or unclear input from the language of others compounds the problem for the hearing impaired.

As a result of their conceptual limitations, both visually handicapped and hearing impaired children may have problems interpreting the language of others and expressing themselves in oral and written modes.

Importance of positive attitudes

In addition to language deficits, sensory impaired children may exhibit behavioral characteristics which have implications for reading instruction. Sensory impaired children may not have the sense of self worth that is so important in facilitating learning. Prior failure in school situations or a history of negative responses from others may leave these children fearful, withdrawn or seemingly unable to learn. Likewise, behavior problems may result when provision has not been made for the children to see or hear adequately and thus participate easily within the classroom. This includes providing adequate lighting, clear and readable written matter, preferred seating, and clearly audible instructions not masked by other noises. A resource person should be available to guide the teacher in making the specific

environmental adjustments required by an individual child's disability. When children are excluded, even unintentionally, they may cease trying to participate, act out their anger, or in some other way exhibit nonfunctional classroom behavior.

Because sensory impaired children must often strain to receive information, they may fatigue more quickly and have shorter attention spans. This should not be interpreted as boredom or naughtiness, but may indicate that a different pacing of lessons is required.

Methods and materials

It seems overwhelmingly clear that a reading approach based on meaning, one that is a total language arts approach, is critical for optimum reading development for sensory impaired children. Following are descriptors of what we believe is a meaning approach, including a rationale for use with sensory impaired children.

First, comprehension is the major goal; skills are taught only to facilitate comprehension.

Because of their probable conceptual and experiential limitations, sensory impaired children need ongoing, systematic development of concepts and broadening of experiences; otherwise, their reading comprehension is severely limited. Teachers must help the children experience new concepts as fully as possible, to form a unified construct. Encountering the concept with all senses helps the child who is limited in one modality to compensate. With each concrete experience, children should be encouraged to talk, write, act out, or in some other way express what they are experiencing. For example, if children were to read a story in which knowledge of a porcupine (an unknown concept) was critical, prior to reading the story the teacher should provide a variety of sensory experiences related to porcupines, encouraging children to clarify their impressions through discussion, and deal systematically with size, shape, touch, color, habitat and life habits of the animal, all as concretely as possible.

Thus the teacher might have children look at a picture of a porcupine and then describe what they see, moving from the general to the specific. They might be asked to compare the porcupine to their pet cat. The teacher might have the children look at the porcupine picture and at the same time feel and examine a quill. The children would be asked to describe how the quill feels, speculate on the purpose for the hook in the quill and discuss how one might pet a porcupine.

Throughout sensory experiences, the teacher would make certain the visually handicapped child was specifically oriented to pictures and objects. The teacher might ask the child to point to, outline, or follow the direction of something with a finger. This helps the child focus and the teacher has important evaluative feedback.

Likewise, the teacher of hearing impaired children will take care to speak extensively and simply on the topic, in a variety of ways, so the children will be certain to get the information. Also the teacher might ask the hearing impaired child for verbal feedback, i.e., require the child to say "porcupine" and "quill" in appropriate contexts. In this way the child has an opportunity to practice the new concepts and receive feedback.

Whenever sensory impaired children read, every effort should be made to have them think and talk about the reading. This alerts the teacher to possible gaps or distortions in the children's knowledge.

further, such discussion encourages the use of emerging concepts and develops the children's receptive and expressive language as they make and verify predictions, evaluate a character's actions, or organize information. Discussion that focuses on feelings toward characters and personal responses to situations helps sensory impaired children develop the self-knowledge and understanding of others that is so basic to feeling good about oneself.

Building language

Second, learning to read builds upon the child's own language competence. Use of syntactic and semantic cues makes it possible both to "know" individual words (decode and define them) and to comprehend their interrelationships (to get the meaning). These are processes the child already uses in oral language. Thus teachers strive to use reading materials that include language familiar to the child. At the same time teachers help develop the child's language by reading to the child (to develop an "ear sense" for book language), by encouraging oral expression (to expand use of different sentence patterns) and by writing with the child (to develop synonyms for words, relate written punctuation to oral counterparts, and to become familiar with more formal language).

Because sensory impaired children's receptive and expressive language is most likely limited, teaching procedures should bombard the children with comprehensible language input and motivate their own speaking. Listening to stories, choral speaking and reading, creative drama, composing and reading language experience stories, playing language games, adding words to wordless books, and discussion are classroom activities that help sensory impaired children develop receptive and expressive language. Since competence in reading builds upon competence in language, such procedures are essential.

Reading materials that use familiar language are essential for sensory impaired children. The more natural, more predictable the language, the more successfully it will be read and understood. Since visually handicapped children may confuse similar words or omit or repeat words because of distorted vision, reading matter with predictable language enables the children to use other language cues and also to read faster (slow reading rate often results from the child's limited focus) and therefore with more comprehension (slow assimilation means that much information is lost since it is not integrated into meaningful wholes and retained).

Importance of context

Third, sight words should be taught in context and skills taught analytically.

For the hearing impaired child, isolated words or sounds are difficult to discriminate and comprehend, whereas a context provides additional auditory cues. While the reading teacher may want hearing impaired children to improve their auditory discrimination, teaching sight words and sound symbol associations should be done visually, within meaningful contexts.

The teacher can help the visually handicapped child use auditory cues to compensate for limited vision. It is essential for the child also to have both sight words and sounds introduced and reinforced in meaningful contexts.

Several other instructional procedures are important when teaching reading to sensory impaired children. Since these children may need more time and experiences to build con-

cepts, learn sight words, and read selections, it is helpful to provide both pre and postteaching activities for these children. For example, prior to working with the story about the porcupine the teacher might take the sensory impaired children aside for some previewing (discussion and sensory experiences that begin to develop concepts, teach sight words and orient the children to the story). Likewise, follow-up activities using new concepts and sight vocabulary and expanding on story ideas are also most helpful. Such pre and postteaching, in addition to the kind of concept development, story orientation, and discussion activities suggested earlier, will give sensory impaired children the extra time and input they seem to require.

Since sensory impaired children have often had failure in school, planning for success is critical. The procedures and materials outlined here do just that: adequate development of concepts prepares for comprehension; context cues facilitate learning sight words; pre and postteaching provide additional input and time to read successfully; including the child in oral language and thinking activities related to reading supports the development of receptive and expressive language; individual participation and acceptance in discussions advance self worth.

Finally, teachers must be alert to potential problems sensory impaired children may have with some reading materials. Teachers must avoid materials that include odd, unfamiliar language; are loaded with unusual or abstract concepts; have a built-in dependence on one modality (all visual or heavily auditory); fragment reading into isolated skills or depend heavily on circling items in workbooks rather than on oral expression; are so individualized that there is little or no provision for oral exchange.

This reading approach is certainly not radically different from what is already used by many fine teachers with "normal" children. Given the adjustments in methodology and materials already suggested, we believe most teachers could easily adapt to teaching reading to sensory impaired children who are mainstreamed within their classrooms.

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Experience

Experience is a hard teacher—she gives the test first, the lesson afterwards.

Vernon Law

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The Language-delayed Child in the Mainstreamed Primary Classroom

Recent perspectives in language development research converge at the notion that people use their language to get things done. That may seem like old news to language arts practitioners who, like this author, are ardent disciples of the likes of Moffett (1968) and Britton (1977). The language arts methodology implied in this viewpoint, however, has not been universally, or even very widely, implemented. Concerns for order and efficiency, conflicts in priorities, and attention to measurable progress criteria have all too often overridden the logic of a student-centered, interactive language environment. That logic, so often rejected or neglected, is firmly grounded in our burgeoning knowledge of how children learn their language—not just its structure, but how to use it, for many purposes, in many situations.

As mildly handicapped children are integrated into our regular classroom settings, it becomes even more important that an understanding of how and why children learn language undergird our instructional practices. Such an understanding provides a rationale for seeking and planning opportunities for child-centered communication in the busy, task-oriented world of the primary classroom. Interactions that are "real" and meaningful to the child are absolutely essential for the development of language competence and maturity. They must not be ignored or avoided with handicapped children for the sake of making time for skills.

Language-delayed children need special attention in order to develop their abilities. It is understandable that often the awareness of this need creates some anxiety in the classroom teacher who

Scofield, S., The language-delayed child in the mainstreamed primary classroom. Language Arts, 1978, 55, 719-723.

has had little training in language intervention. The purpose of this paper is to discuss specifically what the teacher can do to attend to the special needs of his/her special pupils. This may allay some of the anxiety by illustrating the importance of the teacher's genuine attention to and relationship with special children—"strategies" quite within the range of all teachers' skills.

Who Are These Children?

Hubbell's (1977) discussion of interpersonal aspects of clinical work with language-delayed children provided a major contribution to the conception of this paper. He simply defined language delay as the condition in which a child's language development is significantly below his/her chronological age. Teachers who attend closely to the language abilities of their pupils know that primary-age children are still testing and trying out their language. Quite normal children overgeneralize, skip from topic to topic with no apparent transition, try new words in an odd and funny fashion, and misuse some pronouns (Klein 1977). Though they may have acquired a sound basic competence with their language, their performance is still marked by trial and error, a normal part of development. They need ample opportunity to explore their language at home and in school.

Language-delayed children, however, may speak in markedly childlike phrases, without the sentence-producing ability of their peers. More noticeably, they may seem to lack the ability to use their language purposefully. They may choose, in the new demands of the school situation, to talk very little at all. They may seem to lack many concepts, even basic labels, that are part of day to day instruction.

It is hard not to make comparisons; the language of handicapped children seems qualitatively different. Whether that is so, or the language is only chronologically delayed (as argued, for example, by Morehead and Ingram 1973), is irrelevant for the teacher who must decide what to do in the classroom. However far handicapped children may seem from the fluency, flexibility, originality and elaboration that characterize mature divergent semantic abilities (Guilford 1967), they need intensive experience with language in order to grow.

Whether the teacher understands all the nuances of the labels handicapped children carry with them (in their files, one hopes, and not on their foreheads) is also irrelevant. It may reassure teachers to know that some have argued that differences in the underlying conditions of the educable mentally retarded and the learning disabled are irrelevant to the design of instructional programs (Neisworth and Greer 1975). They may in fact share many characteristics (Hallahan and Kauffman 1976). At any rate, one assumes that the teacher has the support services of special personnel. Of immediate concern is what he/she can do in the normal proceedings of the primary classroom to promote language growth in handicapped children.

One important distinction is that we are not talking about the so-called disadvantaged child. The language of such children is usually characterized by some deviation from standard English. Such deviations do not mean the child's language or cognitive abilities are deficient (Day 1974) or delayed. The language is characterized as "restricted" in terms of the contexts in which the child successfully functions. For such a child, the middle class curriculum and the distinctive structure of the school may constitute an alien environment (Bernstein

highly patterned and programmed drill techniques of the Distar Instructional System (Evans 1978). To argue for or against certain programs is not the purpose of this paper, but it is important to note that choice of program depends on many factors, including how the program reflects particular points of view on the nature of language learning. If the language-delayed child is in a program with a specialist, the classroom teacher should know something about the purpose of the program, and where the child is in the sequence of instruction. There are many opportunities in each day to reinforce the learning. Hart and Risley (1975) have described "incidental teaching" as a "seize the moment" strategy whereby children may be engaged in learning situations built on their own needs and expressed interest. Incidental teaching could be used to teach language concepts, syntax, labelling, etc., through such techniques as modeling target structures.

If the teacher is selecting the language program, he/she should seek the advice and assistance of specialists in determining what is appropriate in the given situation. Once again, whatever is being taught systematically can be reinforced incidentally, if the teacher looks for the opportunities the child provides for interaction.

2. *Language delayed children need experience with a range of language functions.* An important perspective on language acquisition is that of Halliday (1975) who has emphasized that children learn language as they learn its functions. He has labelled language functions in three phases. His list of functions in the first phase has been particularly provocative to other researchers.

Pinnell (1975) used Halliday's framework to explore the range of opportunities children in primary classrooms have to "learn to mean." She provided evidence that classroom tasks and learning environments are closely related to the functions of language children employ. Examples in certain categories, particularly the personal and heuristic (problem solving) were hard to find. She emphasized the need for teachers to become more aware of the ways they encourage and discourage children's talk. Tough (1976) provided an appraisal framework useful in the primary classroom, asserting that appraisal activities help teachers better understand children's language and gain new awareness of the role teachers play in the development process.

Smith (1977) expanded Halliday's categories and emphasized the existence of non-language alternatives for expression—alternatives that might be responded to as if the child had talked. Rieke (1974) stressed that the teacher must respond in such a way as to encourage a child to communicate more, to keep the child in an "alternating behavior pattern," a dialogue in which there is give and take. She further stressed that this is true even if the child's attempts at communication are nonverbal.

Wilkinson (1975) set out a classification of language functions that includes: "Who am I?", "Who are you?" and "Who/what is he/she/it?" The teacher of the handicapped child may want to attend particularly to the first two categories. Matters of self-awareness and assertion are crucial in the child's developing language. Just as critical are relationships with others: "establishing contact, maintaining bonds, moving between intimacy and distance, cooperating" (Wilkinson 1975, p. 56).

Whatever framework the teacher may choose for help in determining what language functions are being supported in

the classroom, she/he will want to make certain that both normal and language-delayed children have access to a full range of opportunities. It is all too easy to slip into a pattern of limiting children's language functions by "saving them trouble" or saving time. The focus may be on what are very important, but limited academic functions. For the language-delayed child to carry a teacher's message to the librarian or office, for example, may be a vital learning experience. That kind of task may require some rehearsal with the child, or a peer, may need to be taken in shared responsibility, and so on. Social language behavior. For language-delayed children to experience themselves in imaginative play may be crucial to the development of an effective language. Specifically it may promote the development of their ability to deal with things less concrete and immediate than their own experience. In short, the kinds of activities that are often used as rewards or time-fillers for able children may be the kinds of learning experiences needed by children with limited language ability.

Language-delayed children need opportunities for spontaneous speech in the context of genuine interpersonal relationships. Much of the talk in classrooms is teachers talk to children. We might even say talk at children. Questions and commands, which comprise a very large part of teacher language, function as constraints for child speech (Hubbell 1977). Interactions that follow the child's lead in play and talking facilitate more talk, on the other hand (Wulbert *et al.* 1975). Such interactions also enhance cognitive development by allowing the child to learn from his/her own activity, through genuine feedback.

The notion of *genuine* interaction is an important one. Teachers usually expect answers, not dialogue. Building interpersonal experiences based on children's initiatives means that teachers must *expect* children to communicate. Rieke (1974) suggests that these behaviors encourage interaction: a) Pay attention; expect more to come. b) Acknowledge the child's communication effort. c) Comment on what the child is doing or saying. d) Expand on the ideas suggested by the child. e) Reinforce the child for initiating communication.

Facilitating spontaneous talk requires a "state of mind" that appreciates and values children both as they are and as they might be. With language-delayed children, an attitude is required that values the communication experience as a genuine part of learning to talk. As surely as they need intervention focused on linguistic and cognitive aspects of their development, language-delayed children need interpersonal experiences with significant adults.

The teacher who finds ways to notice small communication efforts (including a sigh, a smile, or a drawing), ways to reward efforts with true interest and response, and ways to find moments for play or other parallel involvement with the special child, may have a powerful influence on the shape of the child's language future. The pause at a child's desk, the greeting at the door, the moment spent with a child at work on a puzzle—all take on new significance when they are seen for their potential effect on language learning.

Special children now, by law, have a place in the classroom. The teacher can serve them well by giving them a place in the social life of the classroom, and in his or her interpersonal life.

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perhaps prepare individuals to change those institutions which still promote racism and can thus lead to a society in which cultural pluralism is recognized by all as an asset. Language arts curricula should make use of students' values as structured by their families and communities and should develop wider sets of values for the students to choose from. While curricula should not seek to change a student's value system, no culture can be static or it dies. By thus expanding their world views, the students should change their values; their value

change should originate from within the students, not be imposed from without.

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CHAPTER VII

The Four M Curriculum: A Way to Shape the Future

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Human variation is the enduring enigma of American public education. Our educational curricula are based on norm-referenced data preparing the teacher and the administrator to conform to the average, to teach the average, and to perpetuate the myth that a teacher can indeed instruct a group. The age-graded norm-referenced Anglocentric curriculum is so much a part of the American educational scene that most people take it for granted as an inevitable given, and it is almost impossible for a person to conceive of a school organized in any other fashion. Resultingly, schools have become rigid and inflexible.

Incredibly, the curriculum of a diverse population is based on the characteristics, life experiences and culture of one minority: the Anglo-Saxon affluent Protestant group. Characteristically, the monolingual, monocultural and unidimensional curriculum which created cell block classrooms with single age groupings evolved. Interestingly, most teachers see themselves as instructors of these groups rather than as interacters with students who are individual human beings.

In 1972, David Hawkins clarified the educational significance of human difference in his seminal work published in the 71st Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. He explained the phenomenon of human difference and how we must accommodate it in our learning structures if we plan to provide equal educational opportunity for all the children of all of the people. Hawkins gives us three postulates of human nature: men (women) are equal, men (women) are free and men (women) are rational." All of the postulates hinge on the first proposition. Hawkins explains it in this way:

> Without equality among men there is no profound problem of politics the obviously superior will rule. Without freedom there is no deep problem of how the rulers will rule. they will rule by force or by psychological manipulation. Without rationality there is no alternative to force or manip

[illegible] Vol XLVIII No [illegible]
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Sizemore, B., The four m curriculum: A way to shape the future. Journal of Negro Education, 1979, 48, 341-56.
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ulation no meaningful debate over ends no problem of consent or consensus.[1]

Hawkins states that the central problems of educational theory and research cannot be defined without consideration of these postulates. This paper will discuss (1) the basic theory presented by Hawkins, (2) the kinds of curricular, methodological and administrative changes required by schools in order to bring about equality, freedom and rationality, and (3) application of the findings to the Four M Curriculum—multilingual, multicultural, multimodal and multidimensional.

THE PROBLEM OF EQUALITY

One dilemma is the fact that in actuality we find that men and women are often unequal, unfree, and irrational. The postulates, therefore, are moral prescriptions—a "hoped-for" view—a wish that people's behavior toward themselves and other people will improve, become better, more cognizant of humanity and humaneness. Hawkins reminds us that we think of adults as equal, free and rational but rarely comprehend children with those capacities. The basic postulates, he says, must obtain over the range of infancy to adulthood. Such an idea would leave us free to think of children and students as teachers as well as learners in the teaching-learning process.

Our confusion has led us to believe that children are all alike and that you can teach each with the same materials, the same things, at the same time, for the same reasons, under the same circumstances. This is untrue. Hawkins argues the following:

> But congenital variety among persons modified by early experience is not single-track. Like biological variety in general it is many-dimensional its graph is profile. And whereas a single well defined curricular track will spread children out in a long line or march, there is also a variance in the learning abilities of a single child along alternative tracks assuming for a moment that these are made commensurable by leading toward a common goal. Thus, by a proper assignment of tracks in a way which complements congenital variety, the variance of learning rates can be reduced and with no decrease of any individual rates.[2]

Every teacher knows that any group of individuals will learn unequally and a large variance generally accrues in any class of students given an identical pedagogical track. Teachers don't know how to interpret this phenomenon or how to cope with it. Our usual manner is to term some of the students as fast and the others

[1]David Hawkins, "Human Nature and the Scope of Education," in *Philosophical Redirection of Educational Research, The 71st Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1972) p. 288.
[2]*Ibid*, p. 299.

as slow to rank them hierarchically as inferiors and superiors with test scores and grades.

Hawkins points out that for each child there exists in principle some unique optimal curricular track of such a kind that in a group where learning is thus individually optimized the variance of attainment will be negligible. He explicates this theory as follows:

> I hope it is clear here that I am not speaking of tracks as prefabricated, as though they could be defined as a textbook on alternative tracks. Mathematicians will recognize that I am speaking abstractly of education as a function (or as functional) over two domains of variables which are essentially nonlinear in their relations to each other. We cannot speak of an optimal track in general except with reference to a particular learner or of an optimal learner except with reference to a particular track. Of course there are some universally bad tracks.[3]

Hawkins discovers a new postulate to deal with this dilemma, and that is, human beings are incommensurable in their differences.[4] Further, he suggests that incommensurability implies that although individuals can be compared and ranked in many ways, such comparisons are vector rather that scalar in type. Additionally, it implies that generally one individual does not excel another in all relevant dimensions. "does not in mathematical language dominate him."[5]

Hawkins's interpretation views people as congenitally varied rather than unequal, posing questions about the differential effect of dissimilar environments in relation to the kinds of learning each supported or inhibited. Local and dependent curricular and instructional choices must make "the curricular spiral tangent at many points to the individual lives of children and to the educative resources of their total environment which they know or can be helped to discover."[6]

Hawkins is certain that children can learn equally in general only as they can learn differently. "The more constraints there are toward single-track preprogrammed instruction, the more predictably will the many dimensions of individual variety—congenitally and individually evolved—express themselves as a large rank-order variance in learning."[7] Equal opportunity can be effected only to the extent that we can institutionalize equal status in our educational programs for all of the children of all of the people. As long as dominance interpreted on a single axis of inferiority and superiority prevails, we will not reach our high and lofty goal of univer-

[3] Ibid.
[4] Ibid., p. 490
[5] Ibid., p. 491
[6] Ibid., p. 492

sal education and ubiquitous literacy. Freedom and rationality require a change.

FREEDOM AND RATIONALITY

All the actions of men and women are subject to constraints and contingencies, most of which they cannot anticipate. But within such boundaries of freedom, will can be exerted. Hawkins describes this reality as having freedom by degrees—"the capacity to use human knowledge in deliberate choice." Only when freedom can be exercised does an individual possess it. Therefore, freedom enables human beings to act in ways which preserve and stabilize themselves, they also act in ways to reproduce themselves. Good education, then, expands the experiences and knowledge so that it is not possible to draw a sharp distinction between self-preservation and self-development—they become the same.

Freedom requires rationality—the exercise of reason—the ability to make intelligent choices among varying alternatives. Piaget demonstrated the presence of rational thought even in children. His thought is inherent in Hawkins's conceptualization of rationality:

> [It] is the tendency, manifest from early infancy, toward the organization of perception and behavior in terms of a hierarchy of invariant structures which is open at the same time to a reorganization of those structures as still higher levels of organization may require.[7]

Hawkins believes that teachers understand the intellectual process of children through an observant mapping of their behavior—a reading of their behavior—in terms of models of learning which we ourselves have built. He says:

> a teacher will not try irrelevantly to explain but instead will try to provide from many sources that which will enrich the empirical matrix of a child's thought or will suggest analogies and connections from previous experience which are, at that moment, unretrievable by the child himself.[8]

To perform in such a way a totally different kind of organization and structure is needed. The organization of the school today is political rather than educational.

Politics can be defined as management of conflict between groups warring over the allocation of scarce resources. Education is an allocative process, too. The issues in the Bakke case are examples. There are few spaces for medical training in this country although our people have a great need for medical service. Why is there a scarcity? There is a scarcity so that the income of doctors can remain high. Capitalism works on a supply-demand paradigm

[7] Ibid., p. 313
[8] Ibid., p. 325

and is competitively interdependent. This means that when commodities or services are scarce the cost is high and the price goes up. It also means that when A wins, B loses. The paradigm requires losers. The educational system is the sorting process which determines who will win, and who will lose. Therefore, the decision that dominance and an inferiority-superiority axis will prevail is a political decision, not an educational one.

Obviously, if we are to effect positive educational changes for all the children of all of the people, we must decide some very basic questions about the kind of social order in which we wish to live. Is it important to build a model of the society we want the schools to help create? Should these models possess the character, the features and the configurations that we expect to reach through our schools? How do we want people to treat each other? Do we want full employment where everyone has the opportunity to work? Do we want to have enough doctors so that everyone can enjoy good health care? Answering these questions demands a rigorous analysis of systemic and organizational rationality.

ORGANIZATIONAL RATIONALITY IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The August 14, 1978, issue of *Education U.S.A.* states that programs in the nation's high schools have become increasingly diverse, but the organization of the schools has remained very traditional. "Thus while the typical high school offers a minimum of three off-campus alternatives to giving credit for course work, almost all schools still schedule courses in half-hour periods and give letter grades."

Katz and Kahn make it abundantly clear that organizations have three significant structural properties: (1) system openness and differentiation from their environments; (2) elaboration of the structure and separation of the organization into potentially conflicting segments because of the hierarchical differences in power and reward; and (3) variation in functional requirements of organizational substructures.[6] Additionally, they state,

> Organizations differ with respect to the permeability of their boundaries. Some organizations have sharply defined rigid boundaries. Entrance into such systems and exit from them are not the decisions of the individual. Prisons, schools and asylums are such organizations. They are not as subject to continuing influence from the external environment as are others.[7]

Furthermore, Katz and Kahn describe rigid organizations as

[6] Daniel Katz and Robert L. Kahn, *The Social Psychology of Organizations* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1966), p. 23.

[7] *Ibid.*

more likely to develop highly differentiated internal structures which maintain their character and resist outside forces. Often the power in these organizations is vested in the top echelon and an oligarchical rather than a democratic system emerges. Since people within any system make contributions of varying effort and value, they are likely to be rewarded differentially. In order to talk about continuing education for change, to include the participants (parents, administrators, citizens, teachers and students) on an equal basis in goal setting and planning, to accommodate the multilingual, multicultural characteristics of the American population in the curriculum, and to make provisions for the actuality of human variation in the student population, we must consider these basic organizational traits.

Moreover, organizational structure must be compatible with what we know about human growth and development. Bruner says that instruction should assist growth.[11] If this is so, what should a constructive responsive teaching-learning environment be like? Sarason says that any attempt to introduce change into the school setting requires, among other things, changing the existing regularities in some way. Several questions should be answered, he advises. For example, what is the rationale for the regularity? What is the universe of alternatives that should be endorsed?[12]

If we admit that every human being is unique and different with differing rates of growth and patterns of development, then we must discard several regularities: (1) traditional school hours; (2) norm-referenced curricula based on the "little race track" concept instead of the curricular network, (3) norm-referenced testing instead of criterion-referenced testing, (4) banking-deposit pedagogy, and (5) hierarchical grouping and administration. Schools must be planned to administer educational policy and to meet the needs of the learners rather than political goals which meet the needs of the society, administrators, school board members, and teachers.

For a brief second during the decade of the 1960's consideration was given to the creation of a curricular network underlining Hawkins's preference for "constant choice and invention." But because the structure of the organization of the schools did not change and because the training of teachers did not change these temporary arrangements were thwarted. Now there is a trend

[11] Jerome Bruner. *Toward a Theory of Instruction* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1966) p. 1.

[12] Seymour B. Sarason. *The Culture of the School and the Problem of Change* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971) pp. 63-64.

away from substantial radical change in the curriculum as school board members swing to the right in politics.

The internalization of Anglocentric sociocultural traditions and values is the prerequisite to social acceptability and access to the political structure.[12] When the English gained political control over the colonies they used this power to promote and maintain the hegemony of English institutions and culture and to discourage the continuation of life-styles and values that were divergent. This process of acculturation became the principal strategy for educating the American child.

Sekou Toure describes culture as the end product of the struggle which men and women wage against nature and other men and women for control of the land.[14] Since the Anglo-Saxon Protestants control most of the production in the United States and dominate the distribution of resources, they strive to relegate all other cultures to an inferior symbolic universe. This is achieved by excluding them from the common curriculum.

Consequently, it is Anglo-Saxon literature which is emphasized in schools. Anglo-Saxon music, poetry and art which are glorified and exalted. This situation reflects the lack of cultural pluralism, and multicultural education in the educational system even where academic freedom should be demonstrated. Because educational programs emerge from social science research and are constructed to maintain the symbolic universe which preserves the superiority and supremacy of this dominant group, alternate universes must be consigned to inferiority or absurdity.[13]

Thus, Anglo-Saxon Protestant values are used as a kind of base line to determine what is normal and abnormal.[16] During the 1960s the Black Cultural Revolution raised questions about this dominance of the common curriculum. These queries led to the installation of Black and ethnic studies programs in many universities, colleges and high schools. Since that time attempts have been made to achieve cultural pluralism in curriculum development, and multicultural education has become the means. However, the political struggle now is between this effort and the reactionary drive for "Competency-Based-Education," sometimes called "Back-to-the-Basics," and testing. These programs seek a

[12] James A. Banks and Geneva Gay, "Ethnicity in Contemporary American Society: Toward the Development of a Typology," *Ethnicity*, V (1978) 230-241.

[13] Sekou Toure, "A Dialectical Approach to Culture," *The Black Scholar* (November 1969) p. 13.

[14] Peter Berger and Thomas Luckmann, *The Social Construction of Reality* (Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Co., 1966). See also Barbara A. Sizemore and Kenneth S. Chase, "The Year That's But It Ain't In My Bag," *The Notre Dame Journal of Education*, 1 (Fall 1970) 230-240.

[15] John Millender, "Literature and Black Children," *The Notre Dame Journal of Education*, 1 (Summer 1970) 118-121.

rigidly single track system which is assumed to guarantee equality of opportunity however unequally and ineffectively that opportunity in question impinges on the lives of diverse human beings."

Accommodating the individual and unique needs of the learner is more costly than implementing Competency Based-Education and Back-to-the-Basics, both of which assume that all children need the same things at the same time. Moreover, it is altogether unclear as to what is basic except reading, writing and arithmetic. Is football basic? Citizenship? At no time during the past fifty years have public schools abandoned the teaching of reading, writing and arithmetic. Nor do the present Competency-Based-Programs specify any changes that are new. What they do is make the curriculum requirements more structured, more rigid, more mechanistic, and less creative. Increasing equal educational opportunity, must begin with the individual and private learning prescriptions issued to the individual learner. Only then can equal chances obtain. This leads us to a new curriculum.

THE FOUR M CURRICULUM

The Four M Curriculum is multilingual, multicultural, multimodal and multidimensional in its focus. It is most appropriate since a philosophy of ethnic pluralism must pervade the schools before any ethnic study can prevail.[18] A Four M Curriculum does not mean that the study of culturally different groups is appended to the Eurocentric curriculum, but rather that the linear and scalar thrust is replaced by one that is spiral and vector. Instruction is conducted through four symbol systems instead of one or two. The four are: words, images, notes and numbers. The content subjects are framed through the spiral arrangements of concepts so that all men and women march through history, literature, language, music, art, science and mathematics with equal status.

Defining curriculum as the total educational environment, it is what is taught (content), how it is taught (methodology) and how it is organized for implementation (administration). Multimodal strategies change the grouping practices of the age-graded norm-referenced curriculum so that both horizontal and vertical organization are affected. Horizontal organization is the way students are grouped by the teacher for instruction in the classroom. Vertical organization determines the pathway from entry to exit. Instead of placing students in cells according to ages and grades totally inde-

[18] Hawkins et al., p. 303.
[19] James A. Banks, "Ethnicity and Schooling: Implications for Dissemination," (Paper presented at the Ethnic Studies Dissemination Conference, Denver, Colorado, November 12-14, 1975).

evident of their achievement, interests, talents, assets, liabilities and skill deficiencies, they will be placed in groups according to multimodal families (many ages in a family). In this way there are more models than the teacher, and peer group instruction can be utilized for rote and drill, repetition and memorization exercises, thus freeing the teacher from these routines. Horizontally, students can be grouped according to their skill mastery as determined by criterion tests designed for prescriptive and diagnostic purposes.

But just what is a skill? *Random House Dictionary* (1967 ed.), defines the word "skill" as follows:

> 1 the ability coming from one's knowledge practice aptitude etc to do something well 2 competent excellence in performance experience dexterity 3 a craft or trade or job requiring manual dexterity or special training in which a person has competence and experience

The Language is definitely career or vocational oriented. Skills are taught procedurally. It is not enough for the teacher to be a master of propositional knowledge but he or she must know how to teach a person how to do something. Learning a skill presupposes learning the content of a discipline which dominates the skill.

Olson talks about the two kinds of knowledge in his interesting and thought provoking essay, "What is Worth Knowing and What Can Be Taught." He says that knowledge per se does not make it possible to solve problems. Hence, verbal knowledge is of limited usefulness, and an activity curriculum of the kind recommended by Dewey would be required for the achievement of a general and practical competence. Consequently, while we talk out of one side of our mouths about Competency-Based-Education and Back-to-the-Basics, which essentially means a "know how" curriculum based on procedural knowledge, we do little to change from learning from texts and teachers to one of learning through experience.

During the Middle Ages, according to Olson, useful things were learned through apprenticeship. Gradually with the spread of writing and the invention of the printing press by Gutenberg, the publication of textbooks altered the teaching style and the schools. Although lip service was given to learning by doing and through experience, observance was more often than not in the breech. Dewey argued persuasively for learning through experience and by doing and McLuhan projected the thought that as much was learned from the primary effects of the medium itself as by content. Thus, in spite of technology and the media, skills are still acquired primarily through performatory acts in the context of direct feed-

[1] David R. Olson, "What is Worth Knowing and What Can Be Taught," *School Review*, 87 (November 1978), 65-82.

back from the environment, or from specifically designed programs devices, or from a tutor, according to Olson. He feels that the most obvious way to acquire both skills and knowledge ... through active attempts to achieve various goals in a variety of performatory domains.

Olson describes three kinds of learning: (1) direct experience i.e., learning that a stove is hot by touching it; (2) modeling or observational learning, i.e., by seeing someone recoil from touching a hot stove; and (3) through symbols, i.e., by hearing the sentence "The stove is hot." The use of symbols has become the most popular means of communicating in the teaching-learning environment of schools. Unfortunately, skills cannot be communicated in this way most of the time because teachers are confronted with large numbers of children who have to be taught in groups. Olson describes this effort:

> What can be taught to a group of children? Only information which can be coded in the mass media. Knowledge is defined in terms of statements and propositions and hence is communicable by definition. While knowledge may be represented in abstract symbolic forms such as sentences which because of their symbolic structure can be conveyed through the mass media skills cannot be conveyed through the mass media. Skills cannot be represented in such symbolic forms except in the roughest rules of thumb [2]

The point that Olson makes so pointedly is that skills cannot be taught in groups by the present banking deposit pedagogy used in most of the classrooms in the United States. So Back-to-the-Basics and Competency-Based-Education is double talk, lip service to the purpose of procedural knowledge without the means for practice.

What does this mean for the administrator who is managing for Competency-Based-Education or Back-to-the-Basics? He or she must find the most obvious way to acquire both skills and knowledge through active attempts to achieve various goals in a variety of performatory domains. Therefore, language, mathematics, music and art must be developed into skill units, mastery of which is acquired through performatory acts as described above. Propositional learning can be taught in large group activities while procedural learning requires small groups or a one to one encounter. Administrators must design a horizontal and vertical organization which will accommodate this need. Both nongrading and team teaching could provide such an experience if implemented properly and with the appropriate training for the personnel involved.

Multimodal groupings of students in families will give the opportunity for large group activities (LGA's) and tutorials. More

[2] Ibid, p. 39

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must be assigned to groups large enough to permit large group instruction as well as small group teaching. Also, enough personnel should be available for individual tutoring.

Schools of education should begin studying these changes. Ray asks the question, "Who will bring about these changes?" He insightfully notices that there are other ways to acquire knowledge from pain and pleasure, extremes of heat, cold, pain, taste and touch which come through physiological sense systems. Olson considers these experiences or learning by doing. Ray adds that teachers use psychological and physiological experiences to impart knowledge and sometimes to discriminate or exercise personal prejudices. The training of teachers must include strategies for examining these characteristics.[23] Prospective teachers should begin working in schools as freshmen acting as tutors, aides, and monitors. Sophomores should assume direct teaching tasks related to curriculum improvement as substitute teachers; juniors should practice teach; and seniors should serve as full teachers. More importantly, education professors should provide more alternative styles of teaching and better methods of meeting the variety of learning styles which teachers meet in a culturally diverse student body.

The Four M Curriculum, moreover, has the following properties:

- —A reorganization of the hierarchical skills for learning language, mathematics, music and art occurs where each teacher is proficient in using each of these symbol systems for instruction.
- —A rearrangement of the sequence of language and mathematics is evident so that the structure of the disciplines becomes relevant to the isolated skills learned previously and so that phases can be taught when the student is ready rather than when the system is ready.
- —The development of multilingual and multicultural content for teaching language, literature, journalism, speech, drama, music, art, history, geography, social science and science is effected.
- —The synthesis of special education services with the needs of students rather than the need of the system occurs, tutoring for students having difficulty in geometry.
- —There is the utilization of multi-age (multimodal) groupings

[23] Herman R. Ray, "Would You Know One If You Saw One?" (An essay on quality education issued from the Black Americana Studies Department, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, Michigan, 1977)

tor instruction, varying the teacher-pupil ratio to accommodate instructional rather than institutional goals.
The utilization of counseling and guidance services in both elementary and secondary schools appears to involve students in problem-solving situations which result in positive solutions to student needs, problems and/or grievances.
–The coordination of career development courses with those disciplines necessary for their operationalization exists, e.g., physics and auto mechanics.
–There is an integration of career development services with student needs, e.g., workstudy or work services opportunities for future lawyers.
–There is an emphasis on learning by experience as well as by symbol systems.

Through these changes, the curriculum is better suited to a diverse population and uniquely different human beings.[24]

Lastly, the Four M Curriculum is characterized by testing based on specific criteria designed to determine the direction rather than scale. The norm-referenced curriculum has been failing minority and Black poor children for over one hundred years and is buttressed by both the testing and the dependent textbook industries. Neither does much to facilitate human growth and development but, rather, serves to sort human beings into winner and loser categories for the economy.

EFFECTS OF NORM-REFERENCED TESTING

The Four M Curriculum requires radical systemic change. This change would be negated by the built-in norm-referenced testing budgets of Competency-Based Education and Back-to-the-Basics programs. In fact, in these programs, testing has replaced teaching in them as the prime pedagogical device. If we are to sustain the norm-referenced curriculum and the standardized tests which make it necessary, the following questions need answers:

–What information will a standardized test result give to a teacher about the learner?
–What diagnosis will it give for the individual learner?
–What skills will it assess?
–How will the teacher determine the rate of growth of the learner?
–How will the teacher determine the pattern of development of the learner?

[24] Barbara A. Sizemore, *The Superintendent's 120 Day Report* (Washington, D.C.: Public Schools System, March 8, 1971). See also B.A. Sizemore, *Education for Liberation: The Human Mandate* (Pittsburgh, Pa.: University of Pittsburgh, 1974).

- How will the teacher assess the learning style and how will he or she know the best method for teaching this learner?
- Will the public be informed as to the student population's deviation from socio-economic norms as well as the achievement norms? Racial norms? National adult norms?

Grouping, testing, counseling, special education and career development placement, disciplinary practices, and promotion standards are all set by tests. Finally, prediction of success in college is determined by a test. Asa Hilliard III asks an interesting question: "Who asked for prediction in the first place?" His answer is: "The politicians."

In a nation of minorities, the preferred minority is still the affluent white Anglo-Saxon Protestant male. The sorting mechanisms continue to work in his favor. They are stacked his way by the use of the norm as the unit of measurement. Hilliard argues that there is no "cultural norm, linguistic norm, cognitive norm, or any other kind of norm in real human experience which can be apprehended by a standard inquiry."[35] He notes that the politics of normal distribution is the hard sell line which is used to legitimize the test as an objective method of distributing the authoritative values of the nation.

The Association of Black Psychologists has called for a moratorium on all standardized testing, and the National Association of Elementary School Principals has urged "an intensive national inquiry into standardized testing." All tests standardized on national norms derive their critical importance from a single factor known as predictability or "predictive validity." In an editorial note,[36] Robert L. Williams says that standardized testing and the entire educational system are highly correlated. Both are based on monocultural assumptions and the notion of a single normal curve for all human abilities. As such, the educational system and standardized tests are Anglocentric and ethnocentric, thereby ignoring the influx into society of other and different cultural groups.[37] More interestingly, an application of the norm concept to the construction of a value continuum results in the definition of a "good" school being one where the students achieve at the national norm—which really means that half of the students fail. Understanding these facts does not undermine the obdurate resistance to the abolition of norm-referenced testing.

[35] Asa Hilliard III, "The Predictive Validity of Norm Referenced Standardized Tests: Report of Error," *The Negro Educational Review*, XXVIII (July-October 1977), 146.

[36] Robert L. Williams, "The Politics of IQ: Racism and Power," *The Journal of Afro-American Issues*, I (Winter 1973), 1.

[37] *Ibid.*

Chuck Stone has an explanation for this obstinacy. Stone informs us that SAT's were constructed by an organization which has become the psychometric monopolist in the two hundred fifty million dollar testing industry. According to him, in 1974, the Educational Testing Service (ETS) in a financial statement revealed that the "testing Godfather," ETS, bled the American people out of $53,901,717. That 1974 income represented an increase in just five years of over $14 million.[28] The recent decline in SAT scores has been interpreted as a decline in achievement of learners. This explanation resulted in a stampede for Competency-Based-Education, Back-to-the-Basics, increased testing and flunking.

Few people who advocate the maintenance of standardized testing have ever had to prove that they could teach anybody anything with them. Just what tests do besides rank and sort is continuously debated.[29] Tests dependent on norm-referenced curricula are biased against the unique demands of Black, Spanish-speaking, poor and handicapped children. These children, who differ from the Anglocentric norms must develop survival skills necessary to function in the hostile environment of the schools. Their success, then, is dependent on these skills giving them an extra burden not required of Anglo-Saxons.

Much to the advantage of the Black poor, many of them tend to be prepared early for independence and survival rather than for academic and intellectual pursuits. This training permits them to remain alive but it does not facilitate their easy absorption into the American economic mainstream. This is because a mismatch occurs between the Black child's background experiences and the required circumstances he encounters in school. Williams admonishes us to accomplish a match by making a Black child's new learning experiences related to the material already in his mental storage. These are the skills which will help him to survive and learn.

The problems of Black students largely center around discipline, learning and self-concept.[30] To alleviate these problems, educational strategies compatible with the growth rates and development patterns, learning styles, cultural heritage and sociolinguistic experiences are needed.

Desegregation and integration models either rarely address this issue or seek to eliminate the imputation of Black interiority or the

[28] Chuck Stone, "A Black Paper: Standardized Tests: True or False?" *The Black Scholar*, November-December 1975, 44-50.

[29] See R. L. Williams, *op. cit.*

[30] Barbara A. Sizemore, "Social-Cultural Factors Which Affect Self-Direction and Self-Responsibility in Students," in Delmo Della Dora and Lee J. Blanchard, eds., *Motivating Inner-City Students for Learning: A Review of Relevant Research and Promising Practices* (Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1979).

exigencies of prior deprivation. The mixing of the races must be accompanied by a different curricular matrix. The differences between human beings, male and female, Black and White, affluent and poor, and in religious and ethnic groups must be acknowledged by the school system and some kind of change must appear to relieve the disparity which results from neglect.

The lack of positive leadership in the area of education in the American community is unfortunate. The retreat of the Black elite from social activism directed against the system's deficiencies has deepened the chasm between the Black affluent and the Black poor, although Black Studies programs attempt to correct this flaw in undergraduate education. Brossard comments about that in this way:

> If present patterns continue, Black undergraduate education promises to address only personal needs by supplying upward mobility to the gifted, patient or determined few. All of this will happen at the expense of strengthening wider functional education and advanced literary diffusion among the masses of Black and oppressed people. Skewed individual progress at the expense of bigger shares of literacy diffusion and internal development, an unstated but growing crisis in the midst of Black American institutional life, promises to detach educated Black elites from their membership group and to promote unresolved conflicts and separate goals between educated Black elites and the Black masses. Old patterns of racial solidarity, the backbone of much of the organization and struggle against second class citizenship and unequal development, suddenly begin to crack and thereby leave a growing Black poor without its talented tenth for advanced leadership and completed struggle against inequality.[1]

Human variation remains the enduring educational enigma because we are not able to absorb everyone who would be competent and trained into the economic system. There is an incompatibility between our political ideology which guarantees equality, freedom, and rationality to all, and our economic system which is competitive and interdependent, requiring numbers of people to lose. From this incompatibility there emerges an educational system, which purports to guarantee equal opportunity for all, but which actually maintains social privileges and social classes in a stratified society. Naturally, then, there will be losers in the schools of the United States. No change in this category will occur until the problem of human difference is faced and the scope of human nature which Hawkins presented is accommodated. The Four M Curriculum offers this opportunity. Once human variation is provided for, equality will exist in educational programs. And on the postulate of equality, freedom and rationality rest.

[1] Sylvia A. Brossard, "Black Students, Black Studies and Education Today," (Address given at Second Spring Black Week, Department of Black Studies, University of Pittsburgh, October 19

MYTH	FACT
1. Once diagnosed as mentally retarded, a person remains within this classification for the rest of his/her life.	The level of mental functioning does not necessarily remain stable, particularly for those in the mild classification.
2. If a person achieves a low score on an IQ test, this means that his/her adaptive skills are also sure to be subnormal.	It is possible for a person to have a tested subnormal IQ and still have adequate adaptive skills. Much depends on the individual's training, motivation, experience, social environment and other factors.
3. Children with Down's Syndrome are always happy, compliant, and pleasant to have around.	In general, although they often are tractable and good-natured, the idea that they are significantly more so than other children is exaggerated.
4. The retarded go through different learning stages than normal individuals	Many studies indicate that the learning characteristics of the retarded, particularly the mildly retarded, do not differ from those of normal people. Retarded people go through the same stages but at a slower rate.
5. Children classified as moderately retarded (often referred to in the past as "trainable") require a radically different curriculum than do children classified as mildly retarded (often referred to in the past as "educable").	While, in general, academics is stressed more in classes for the mildly retarded relative to the moderately retarded, this generalization does not always hold true for individual children. Each child has a unique set of characteristics and needs.
6. It is valuable for the teacher to know whether or not the child's retardation is due to brain damage.	While the diagnosis of brain injury may be important for the medical professional, educators gain no useful information from such information. (Hallahan & Kaufman, 1978)

MYTH	FACT
1. Learning disabilities have nothing to do with environmental disadvantage.	Special educators now believe that a poor environment may be a contributing factor to learning problems.
2. Learning disabilities are not related to mental retardation or emotional disturbances.	It is possible for both mentally retarded and emotionally disturbed children to have learning disabilities-that is, not to achieve their potential.
3. All learning-disabled children have brain damage or dysfunction.	Although more learning disabled children are found to have central nervous system damage or dysfunction that "normal" children, it is possible to have a learning problem without any evidence or brain damage.
4. A child who is mixed-dominant (e.g., right-handed, left-eyed, left-footed, and right-eared) will have a learning disability.	While there is a slight tendency for mixed-dominance to occur more frequently in learning disabled compared to normal children, there are many children who learn normally who are also mixed-dominant.
5. All learning-disabled children have perceptual problems.	While perceptual problems are more frequent in learning-disabled children, as currently classified, some do not evidence perceptual problems (Hallahan & Kaufman, 1978).

MYTH	FACT
1. Most disturbed children escape the notice of people around them.	Although it is difficult to identify the types and causes of emotional disturbance, most disturbed children, whether they are the aggressive or the withdrawn type, are quite easy to spot.
2. Disturbed children are usually bright.	Relatively few disturbed children have above average intelligence; in fact, most mildly or moderately disturbed children are around 90 in IQ, while most severely or profoundly disturbed children, when they can be tested, have scores in the retarded range, that is, around 50.
3. Children whose emotional disturbance exhibits itself in withdrawn behavior are more seriously impaired than are those whose behavior is hyperaggressive.	Children with aggressive, acting-out behavior have less chance for good social adjustment and mental health in adulthood. Neurotic, withdrawn children have a better chance of getting and holding jobs, overcoming their emotional problems, and staying out of jails and mental hospitals as adults.
4. Disturbed children need, above all, a permissive environment in which they feel accepted and can accept themselves for what they are.	Research shows that a firmly structured and highly predictable environment is of greatest benefit to disturbed children.
5. Only psychiatrists, psychologists, and social workers are able to help disturbed children overcome their problems.	Most teachers and parents can learn to be highly effective in helping disturbed children, often without extensive training or professional certification.
6. The undesirable behaviorr we see a disturbed child perform are only symptoms of the problem, the real problems are hidden deep in the child's psyche.	There is no sound scientific basis for surmising hidden, underlying causes; the child's behavior and its social context are the problems. (Hallahan & Kaufman, (1978)

MYTH	FACT
1. Cerebral palsy is a contagious disease.	Cerebral palsy is not a disease in the usual sense. It is not contagious or progressive, and there are no remissions. It is a result of brain injury before, during, or soon after birth.
2. Most children with cerebral palsy have average or above-average intelligence.	The average tested IQ of children with cerebral palsy is lower than the average for normal children.
3. The more severely crippled people are the less intelligent they are.	A person may be severely crippled by cerebral palsy or another condition but have a brilliant mind.
4. People who have physical disabilities always have psychological problems.	There is no personality type associated with physical disability.
5. People with epilepsy are mentally ill.	People with epilepsy are not any more or less disposed to mental illness than are those who do not have epilepsy.
6. Arthritis is found only in adults, particularly in the elderly.	Arthritic conditions are found in people of any age, including young children.
7. Tuberculosis has been completely eliminated as a public health problem.	Tuberculosis still exists as a health problem; although great progress has been made in its control and treatment, it still occurs, particularly in poverty areas.
8. Tuberculosis is a disease found only in old people.	Tuberculosis is found in all age groups.
9. Tuberculosis is a disease of the lungs.	Tuberculosis can infect almost any organ system, though the lungs are most commonly involved. The larynx, bones and joints, skin, gastrointestinal tract, genitourinary tract, and heart may also be infected. (Hallahan & Kaufman, 1978)

MYTH	FACT
1. Children with language disorders always have speech difficulties as well.	It is possible for a child to have a good articulation, and speech flow and yet not make any sense when he or she talks; however, most children with language disorders have speech disorders as well.
2. Individuals with speech difficulties or language disabilities are always emotionally disturbed or mentally retarded.	There are many children with speech and/or language disorders who are apparently normal in cognitive, social, and emotional areas.
3. A dialect used by someone from a culturally different group is in reality a speech disorder.	It is widely believed today that dialects used by children from minority groups represent valid languages with different phonological, grammatical, and syntactical rules.
4. Stuttering is primarily a disorder of people with extremely high IQ's.	Stuttering can affect individuals at any level of intellectual ability.
5. Children who stutter become stuttering adults.	Some children who stutter continue stuttering as adults; most, however, stop stuttering during adolescence. Stuttering is primarily a childhood disorder.
6. Disorders of articulation are never very serious and are always easy to correct.	Disorders of articulation can make speech unintelligible and it is sometimes very difficult to correct articulation problems, especially if the individual is retarded, disturbed, or cerebrally-palsied.
7. A child with a cleft palate will have defective speech.	The child born with a cleft palate may or may not have a speech disorder, depending on the nature of the cleft, the medical treatment he receives, and other factors such as his psychological characteristics and the speech training he receives.
8. There is no relationship between intelligence and disorders of speech and language.	Speech and language disorders of all types occur more frequently among individuals of lower intellectual ability, although it is possible for these disorders to occur in individuals who are extremely intelligent. (Hallahan & Kaufman, 1978)

MYTH	FACT
1. Legally blind people have no sight at all.	Only a small percentage of those who are legally blind have absolutely no vision. The majority have a useful amount of functional vision.
2. The blind have an extra sense that enables them to detect obstacles.	The blind do not have an extra sense. They can develop an "obstacle sense," which is not inherent provided they nave the ability to hear.
3. The blind automatically develop better acuity in their other senses.	Through concentration and attention the blind learn to make very fine discriminations in the sensations they obtain. This is not an automatic sensory acuteness, but rather represents a better use of received sensations.
4. The blind have superior musical ability.	The musical ability of the blind is not necessarily any better than that of sighted people. Apparently many blind individuals pursue musical endeavors because this is one way in which they can achieve success.
5. The blind are helpless and dependent.	With a good attitude and constructive learning experiences, a blind person can be as independent and possess as strong a personality as a sighted person.
6. If partially blind people use their eyes too much, their sight will deteriorate.	Marginal only in rare conditions is this true; visual ability can actually be improved through training and use. Strong lenses, holding books close to the eyes as much as possible cannot harm vision.
7. Seeing-eye dogs take blind people where they want to go.	The guide dog does not "take" the blind person anywhere; the person must first know where he or she is going. The dog is primarily a safeguard against unsafe areas or obstacles. (Hallahan & Kaufman, 1978)

MYTH	FACT
1. Deafness leads automatically to inability to speak.	Even though hearing impairment, especially with greater degrees of hearing loss, a barrier to normal language development, most deaf people can be taught some use of language.
2. The deaf child is inherently lower in intellectual ability.	It is generally believed that the intellectual capacities of deaf and normal children are the same at birth, although the use of these abilities may differ depending upon language-dependency of concepts, motivation, learning experiences, parental instruction, and other factors.
3. Teaching the manual method of communication is harmful to the child and may hamper his development of oral language.	Most educators are acknowledging now that a combination of the manual and the oral methods, according to the needs of the individual child, is the best approach to teaching communication skills.
4. A hearing aid is of no use to a person with sensorineural hearing loss.	While not as useful as with conductive hearing losses, hearing aids can sometimes help people with sensorineural impairments.
5. Hearing aids should not be used for hearing losses that are very mild or very severe.	There are no hearing losses too mild or too severe to prevent a person from trying a hearing aid.
6. A hearing aid lets the person hear exactly as does a normal person.	No hearing aid can ever completely compensate for a hearing loss; in general, hearing aids simply make sounds better.
7. Hearing losses in the high-frequency range cannot be corrected by a hearing aid.	This is no longer true because of the development of hearing aids that can be worn in places that do not involve amplification of distracting low-frequency sounds (Hallahan & Kaufman, 1978).